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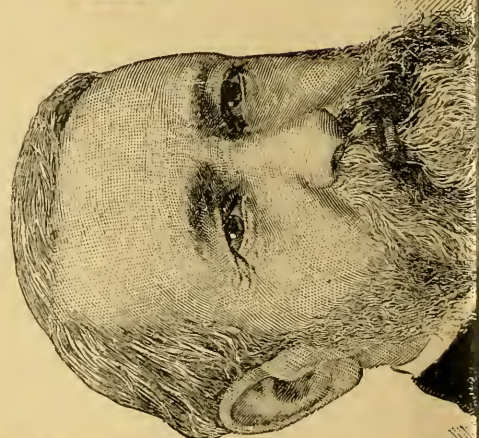
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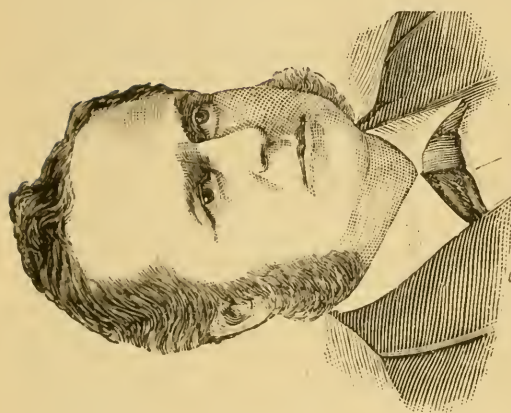
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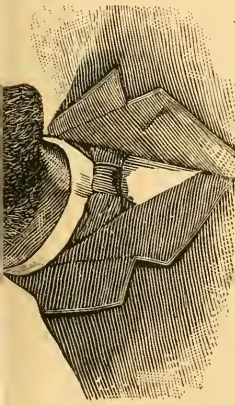


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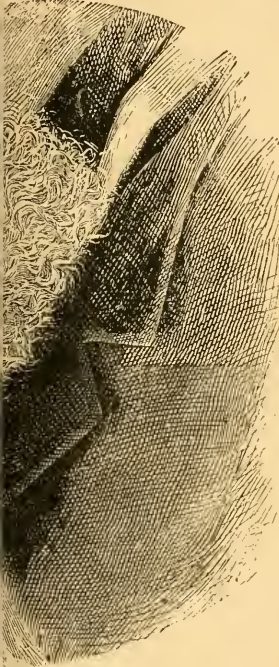


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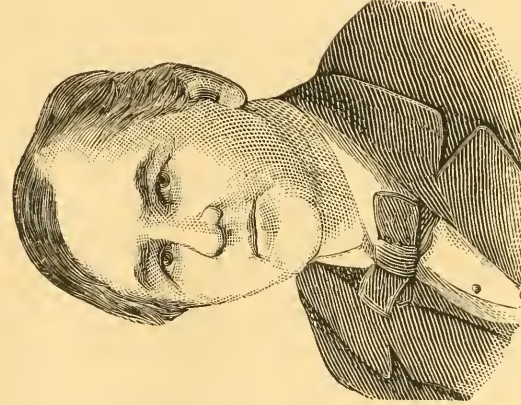


BENJAMIN FRANKLIN TRACY.

Benjamin



REDFIELD PROCTOR.



JOHN WANAMAKER.

BENJAMIN HARRISON, OUR TWENTY-THIRD PRESIDENT, AND HIS CABINET.

Note. This Volume is the same
as Vol. 2. of 'The Fabrics made
of four centuries' 1890.
By the same author.

THE PROGRESS
OF
FOUR HUNDRED YEARS
IN
THE GREAT REPUBLIC OF THE WEST.

THE FASCINATING STORY
OF THE WONDERFUL GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT OF
OUR GREAT AMERICAN CITIES,

Prepared under the Supervision of their Respective Authorities:

WITH

GRAPHIC HISTORICAL SKETCHES OF ALL
THE STATES AND TERRITORIES,

WHOSE REMARKABLE AND RAPID ADVANCEMENT IN THE ARTS AND SCIENCES, IN EDUCATION
AND ARCHITECTURE, IN INDUSTRIES, MANUFACTURES AND POPULATION HAVE EXCITED
THE WONDER OF THE ENTIRE WORLD.—A RECORD FROM THE EARLIEST SET-
TLEMENTS TO THE PRESENT TIME, IN CHRONOLOGICAL ORDER, TRACING
EACH STEP IN THE FORMATION OF THE REPUBLIC, AND EXHIB-
ITING THE CHARACTER, VARIETY AND STRENGTH OF
THE ELEMENTS COMBINED IN THE FORMATION

OF

THE GREATEST NATION EVER FOUNDED ON POPULAR RIGHTS.

BY

BENSON J. LOSSING, LL.D.,

AUTHOR OF "PICTORIAL FIELD BOOK OF THE REVOLUTION," "THE WAR OF 1812," "THE CIVIL WAR," "A HISTORY OF
THE UNITED STATES FOR SCHOOLS," "LIVES OF EMINENT AMERICANS," "THE HOME OF WASH-
INGTON," "LOSSING'S BOOK OF THE HUDSON," "OUR COUNTRY," ETC.

ILLUSTRATED

WITH CHOICE ENGRAVINGS OF PLACES OF HISTORIC INTEREST IN OUR GREAT CITIES, THEIR TRIUMPHS
IN ARCHITECTURE AND ENGINEERING; WITH THE ARMS OF THE SEVERAL STATES
AND TERRITORIES, AND PORTRAITS OF THEIR FIRST GOVERNORS.

NEW YORK:

GAY BROTHERS & CO.,

30, 32, 34 READE STREET.

1890.

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PREFACE.

The present volume delineates four centuries' achievements in the Great Republic of the Western World. From the time Christopher Columbus set foot on the shores of this mighty hemisphere until the present, the entire Continent has been busy making history, particularly that portion occupied by the people of the United States, whose wonderful progress needs to be viewed from a standpoint totally different from that to be found in a formal or consecutive history of the Nation, the salient features of which are more or less familiar to all.

The aim of the present work is to enable readers to separately view the marvellous story of these four centuries' achievements of our country as unfolded in the history and growth of each of our great modern cities, and in that of the several States and Territories of the Union; therefore, one of the objects of this undertaking is to throw upon the canvas a moving panorama of the life and development of the great centres of population, where our social, political, commercial, and industrial activities are to be seen in their highest and grandest forms.

Cities rivalling in commercial interests and material prosperity the proudest capitals of the Eastern Hemisphere, have sprung up and developed, as if by magic, from one extreme to the other of our broad land. While they may not boast of the same antiquity they are rapidly vying with the cities of the Old World in architectural adornment and the cultivation of the liberal arts. Their grand advancement in science and education, in architecture and engineering, in art and social refinement, in commercial enterprises and material progress, and all that adds to the civilization of the age, have tended to make these cities the marvel of the times in which we live. As the tides of population have set westward the new cities have grown to immense size even within the last decade, while the older cities of our Atlantic and Gulf States have kept pace with the civilization of the century in every department of modern life. These sketches necessarily include a graphic view of the Capital of our Nation, and that of each of the States and Territories, wherein are located the halls of legis-

lation and of justice, thus displaying a grand galaxy of republican governments and institutions such as have never been presented elsewhere in the history of the world.

The careful examination of the unparalleled progress exhibited in the history of our great cities is important, but none the less so is a view of the achievements presented in the history of each State and Territory composing this grand Union as a whole, in the order in which they were settled or admitted into the family of States. Therefore, picturesque sketches of a historical and descriptive character have been introduced, showing at a glance the wonderful part which each has acted in the national drama, while giving a definite conception of the achievements in which all have nobly shared. There is a great need of such a new presentation from this view-point; in the fact that many readers, who are familiar with the history of the Nation as a whole, are not cognizant with that of the several States, and even lack information respecting their own.

There could be no more favorable period than the present in which to consider the relation of each State to the fabric that our fathers erected upon so firm a foundation. It will be found that these comprehensive accounts of our cities, States, and Territories furnish in new and interesting form the cream of the history of the achievements of the people of the whole country up to the present time. This plan has many great advantages over any consecutive national history, of which this may be mentioned: it furnishes a knowledge of the whole country through a study of its component parts, each sketch presented being sufficiently brief and graphic not to repel the reader, but allure him to a frequent perusal of the work until he has completed the whole; by the plan adopted he is enabled to better secure and retain in his mind each subject, as pictured separately, without the confusion incident to the narration of events pertaining to other portions of the country.

The style in which the work is presented gives it a fascination and interest that will attract the attention of the general reader, while the historic value of its statements makes it indispensable as a book of reference for the student and for all who desire to keep well informed upon the rapid advancement of our Great Republic of the West during its four hundred years' progress.

TESTIMONIALS.

Mayor's Office, Nashville, Tenn.

Gentlemen:—Your letter enclosing a brief history of Nashville came duly to hand, for which I thank you; it has been referred to a committee of gentlemen whom we have organized on the subject, and in a few days I will be able to report to you the result of their work.

Yours truly,

THOMAS A. KERCHEVAL, Mayor.

From the Manufacturers' and Mechanics' Ass'n of Nashville, Tenn.

Gentlemen:—I have received your second proof on the City of Nashville. I have examined it in all its details with great care and can vouch for the correctness of its statements. I regard it as complete, satisfactory, and as good and thorough a sketch as could be desired.

WM. STOCKELL, President.

ATTEST { *PITKIN C. WRIGHT, Secretary.*
THOMAS A. KERCHEVAL, Mayor.

Mayor's Office, Hamilton, Ont.

Gentlemen:—In answer to yours of the 26th inst. with enclosed sketch of Hamilton I would say, it is very complete for the space occupied, and if the rest of the work is as correct it will be a valuable book.

I am, very truly yours,

ALEX. McADAY, Mayor.

Ottawa, Ontario.

Gentlemen:—The Mayor has made some corrections of importance in your sketch of the City of Ottawa, particularly in reference to trade, population, etc.

Yours truly,

W. P. LETT, City Clerk.

MAYOR'S OFFICE, BUFFALO, N. Y.

Gentlemen:—In accordance with your request, I have devoted some little time to the preparation of an article on the City of Buffalo, which I transmit herewith, and can assure you of its correctness, and would say that it has the approval of His Honor the Mayor, who is a representative business man, a member and ex-President of the Board of Trade, President of the German Insurance Co., and the head of the firm of Philip Beecher & Co., Wholesale Grocers.

Yours truly,

HENRY S. THAYER, MAYOR'S SECRETARY.

I am much pleased with the article on the City of Wilmington, Del.

C. B. RHODES, Mayor.

Mayor's Office, St. John, New Brunswick.

Gentlemen:—I forward you by this mail a "guide" for the Eastern Provinces, which contains cuts of our city streets and principal buildings; the book was published under the patronage of the Board of Trade, and I think is reliable.

Yours truly,

T. S. BORES DE VEBER, Mayor.

Gentlemen: Salt Lake City Corporation, Recorder's Office.

His Honor the Mayor, Mr. Francis Armstrong, has assigned me the duty of examining the proof-sheet of sketch of our city. The Mayor directs me to say he regrets the delay, and will forward the proof, with such corrections as he deems appropriate, within a day or two.

Yours very respectfully,

HEBER M. WELLS, Recorder.

Mayor's Office, Wilmington, N. C.

Gentlemen:—Yours of the 17th, with sketch, received, and find the contents correct.

Very respectfully,

E. D. HULL, Mayor.

Dear Sirs:

Taxing District, Shelby County, Tenn.

We have corrected a few items in the proof you sent us of Memphis and have returned same to you. We also send you some reports from which you can get a more extended notice of our city, its financial condition, etc. These reports of the various departments of our city will be convincing proof that we would like to have a true and correct publication.

Respectfully yours,

DAVID P. HADDEN, President.

Taxing District, Shelby County, Tenn.

Dear Sirs:—The sketch of the City of Memphis is all satisfactory.

I am yours truly,

DAVID P. HADDEN, President.

Dear Sirs:

City of Charleston, S. C., Executive Department.

I beg leave to enclose you herewith the corrected sketch of the City of Charleston, and to say that there is nothing further to suggest. The sketch is admirable and concise. Mayor Courtenay will be pleased to include in the City's Library a copy of so valuable a work as this will no doubt be.

Yours respectfully,

R. G. NEALE, for the Mayor.

Savannah, Ga.

The sketch as it now stands is correct; the Mayor directs me to thank you for your courtesy and kindness.

Very Respectfully,

FRANK E. REBARER, Clerk of Council.

The article on Trenton, N. J., I think is correct, or will be with the additions and corrections I have made on the proof.

Yours truly,
John Wolverton, Mayor.

Your sketch of Columbus is a fair, unbiased statement of our City.

CHAS. G. LORD,
Secretary Columbus Board of Trade.

I am much pleased with the article on New Haven, and think you treat us quite fairly.

I am most truly yours,
Geo. F. Holcomb, Mayor.

It would be difficult to improve on what you say in this sketch about Troy, N. Y.

EDMUND FITZGERALD, Mayor.

The article on Syracuse appears to be all right.

Willis B. Burns, Mayor.

I think the article on Evansville, Ind., is very satisfactory and cannot be improved on.

J. H. DANNETTELL, Mayor.

You have admirably succeeded in crowding a vast quantity of useful information in a very limited space.

GEO. M. GARDNER, Mayor of Cleveland.

In my opinion the sketch of Manchester, N. H., is meritorious, comprehensive, and satisfactory.

GEO. H. STEARNS, Mayor.

Your description of the City of Detroit is generally correct.

J. A. WALSH, Mayor's Secretary.

Mayor's Office, Davenport, Iowa.

The article on the City of Davenport seems to be all right.

E. C. CLEESSER, Mayor of Davenport.

MAYOR'S OFFICE, MILWAUKEE.

Gentlemen—Yours of the 29th ultimo, enclosing corrected proof of sketch of this city, is received. The Mayor wishes me to say to you that the sketch as now written is quite fair.

Yours respectfully,

F. PARINGER, SECRETARY.

Mayor's Office, Kansas City.

I have noted the exact assessed valuation of city property for 1885 and 1886—see corrections on proof—and regard your article as entirely truthful.

HENRY C. KUMPF, Mayor.

FROM THE MAYOR OF PETERSBURGH, VA.

No material changes can be made in your proof, as it is correct.

Mayor's Office, Kingston, Ont.

Gentlemen :

I have just returned to the city and find your sketch of it. I believe it to be correct and a very fair description ; as suggested I have slightly amended it.

Yours truly,

JOHN L. WHITING, MAYOR.

MAYOR'S OFFICE, QUEBEC.

GENTLEMEN :—Enclosed I send you back your article on Quebec. It is as good an article as could be desired ; it gives a very fair and correct idea of our city.

Yours truly,

F. LANGELEIR, Mayor of Quebec.

Mayor's Office, Montreal, Can.

Gentlemen :—I return to you herewith the proof of the Historical Sketch of Montreal ; you will also find the corrections made on the subject by our City Auditor. I also mail you to-day a couple of small pamphlets, containing all the necessary information.

Yours truly,

H. LEAUQRAN, Mayor.

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GREAT CITIES

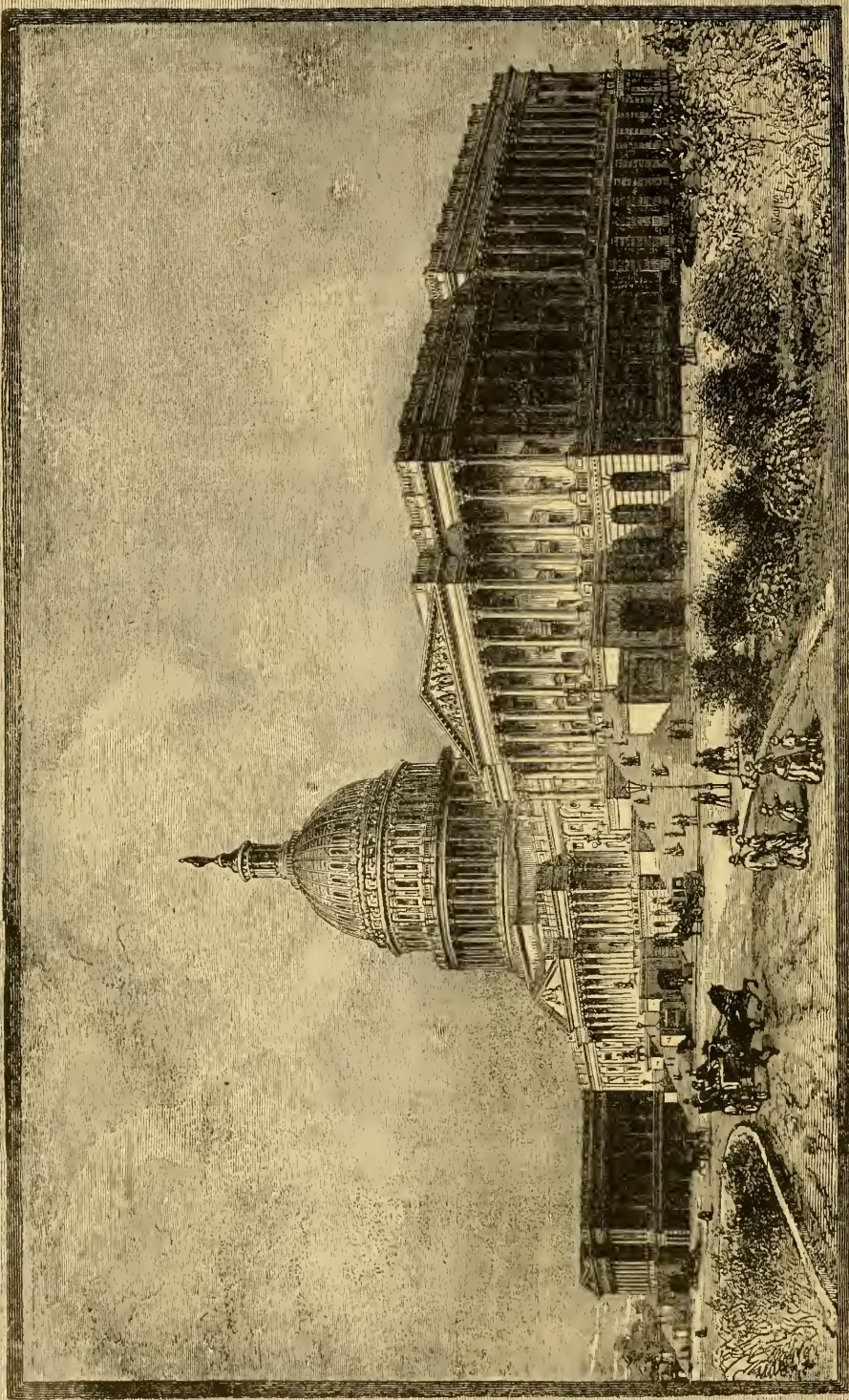
OF

THE UNITED STATES.

PREFATORY NOTE.

The Editor of "Great Cities of the United States" desires to express his thanks to the Mayors, Boards of Trade, and other officials of the respective cities for their great assistance in the preparation of these Sketches. In the case of only a few cities was the Editor deprived of such invaluable aid.

He would take this opportunity to acknowledge his indebtedness for valuable service thus rendered, not only in furnishing material and information that could be supplied through no other source, but also in the careful revision of proof sheets to guard against any possible inaccuracy of statement and to include the very latest facts before going to press.



NATIONAL CAPITOL, WASHINGTON, D. C.

Great Cities of the United States; their Origin and Wonderful Growth.

WASHINGTON, D. C.



WASHINGTON is the Capital of the United States; it is in the Federal District of Columbia, situated on the left bank of the Potomac River, 160 miles from its mouth, between Anacostia River and Rock Creek, which separates it from Georgetown. It is 37 miles from Baltimore, 136 from Philadelphia, 120 from Richmond, 225 from New York, 432 from Boston, 700 from Chicago, 856 from St. Louis, 1,033 from New Orleans, and 2,000 from San Francisco. The Potomac at Washington is one mile wide, and deep enough for the largest vessels.

When, in October, 1800, the transfer of the Government of the United States was made to its present seat, the most visionary dreamer could hardly have foreseen the magnificence and beauty of the city of Washington as it is to-day.

The grandeur and greatness of the model government of the world is fittingly represented by the stately city, which is the home of the central government of the most powerful republic the world has ever known, and its growing splendor (the evidence of the prosperity of the people) is but an exemplification of the saying of the great President Lincoln, that "a Government of the people and by the people shall not perish from the face of the earth."

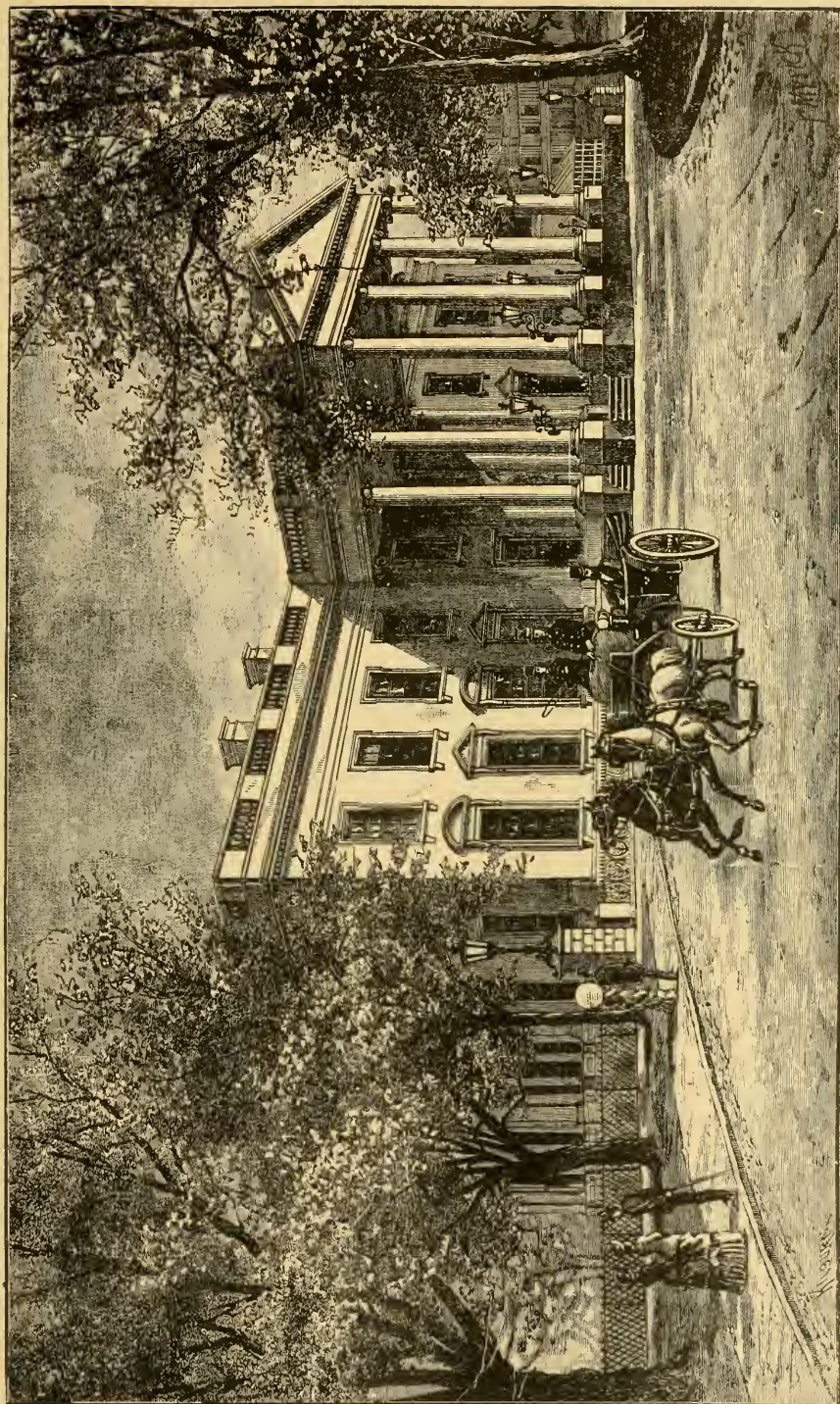
In points of historic interest there is not a city in the world possessing the attractions to the American citizen that the Capital of the nation affords. In accordance with the act of Congress (March 3, 1791) the city was laid out,

under the direction of President Washington, on a plateau 40 feet above the river, with several elevations, with over 250 miles of streets and avenues. The streets are from 80 to 120 feet wide, and the avenues 130 to 160 feet—the latter are named after various States. General Washington called it the Federal City, and it was not until after his death that it received his name. The streets from north to south are numbered, and those from east to west are lettered. Twenty-one avenues cross these in various directions; the new Executive Avenue winds from the White House around the city to the Capitol. The original plan of the city was so extensive and the increase of population so small, that Washington was often called “the city of magnificent distances.”

In 1839 an English traveler said: “The town looks like a large straggling village reared in a drained swamp.” In 1851 the work of laying out and adorning the reservations and parks was commenced under the skillful guidance of A. J. Downing, but his death, the next year, and the neglect of Congress, arrested it for twenty years. In 1871 a government for the District was established by Congress, with a governor and legislature and a board of public works, to which was given control of the streets, avenues, and sewers of Washington and Georgetown, with authority to improve them under a general plan. A system of sewerage and of pavements was organized, which resulted in regrading most of the highways, paving 160 miles of streets with stone, wood, or concrete, planting about 30,000 shade trees, and improving the public squares with fences and trees. In three years the city was transformed. From that time to the present a very large number of public buildings and private residences have been erected. The city covers about 6,000 acres, of which the Government reservations comprise 500, and the streets 2,500, leaving 3,000 for the lots on which private residences are built. As open places are in all parts of the city, fresh air is abundant, and healthfulness is greatly promoted. The undulating surface of the city produces a constant variety of scenery without obstructing the travel. Its environs present a beautiful and picturesque landscape, which is seen to the best advantage from the portico or dome of the Capitol, and drew from Humboldt the declaration, “In all my travels I have not seen a more charming panorama.”

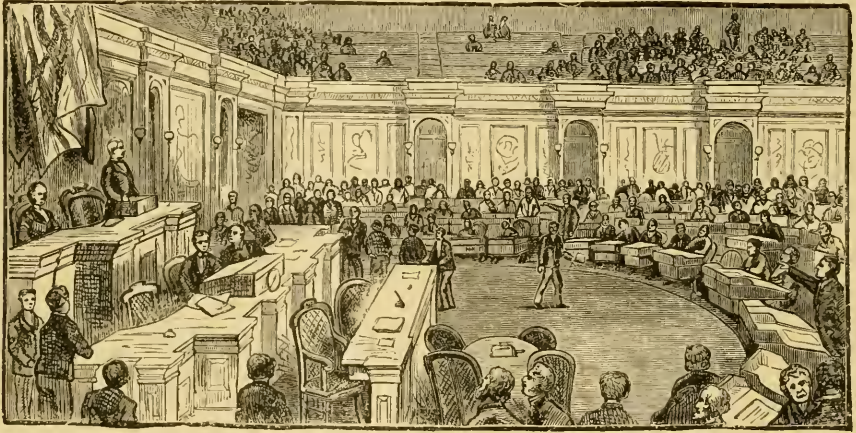
THE CAPITOL BUILDING.

Travelers who have visited all the capitols of the world pronounce this to be the finest civic building extant, and certainly every American may well be



THE WHITE HOUSE, WASHINGTON, D. C.

proud of it. It stands upon Capitol Hill, fronting both east and west. It is 751 feet long from north to south, 350 feet in width, covers an area of three and one-half acres of ground, and has cost upward of \$15,000,000. The central portion is of sandstone, painted white; this was partially destroyed in 1814 by the British. The extensions are of Massachusetts marble; with monolith columns of Maryland marble. The dome is of iron, and weighs 40 tons. It is surmounted by a statue of "Freedom," from designs made by Thomas Crawford under a special commission from Congress. The cornerstone of the original Capitol, now the central part of the structure, was laid in 1793, by George Washington, with Masonic ceremonials. The corner-stone of the extensions was laid in 1851, Daniel Webster delivering the oration.



THE SENATE CHAMBER.

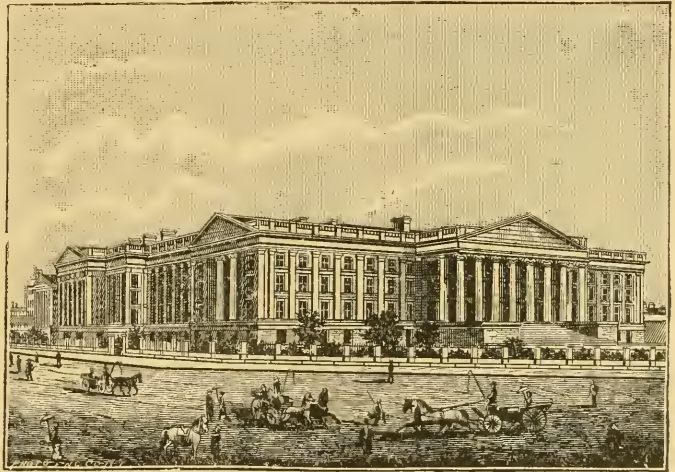
The Capitol is always open to visitors except on legal holidays. The admission is free, and parties endeavoring to collect an entrance fee to this or any other public building in Washington are impostors, and ought to be handed over to the police without ceremony.

Here the objects of interest are so numerous that space can be given only to a brief mention of each of them. Upon a platform erected in the east central portico, the oath of office is administered to the President in the presence of the public, and here he delivers his inaugural address. Fronting the portico is Greenough's statue of Washington. On each side the steps leading up to the portico are emblematical groups in marble; the one on the south side is Persico's "Discovery," the one on the north Greenough's "Civilization." The first represents Columbus holding a globe aloft, while an Indian maiden

crouches by his side. In the other the pioneer husband and father rescues the wife and child from impending death at the hands of the bloodthirsty Indian. Within the portico are statues of "War" and "Peace" in niches. The door opening into the rotunda is the Rogers bronze door, so widely famous. It is well worth the closest study. It was cast in Munich, in 1861, from designs by Randolph Rogers, and cost altogether about \$30,000. It is nine feet wide and seventeen feet high, and here, in a great bronze picture, is told the story of the life of Christopher Columbus.

Having studied this magnificent work of art, the visitor enters the rotunda, a vast circular room, 95½ feet in diameter, 300 feet in circumference, and 180 feet in height to the

base of the canopy which surmounts it. The lower part of the wall of the rotunda is occupied by eight historical pictures, viz.: "Declaration of Independence," "The Surrender of General Burgoyne," "The Surrender of Lord Cornwallis," and "The



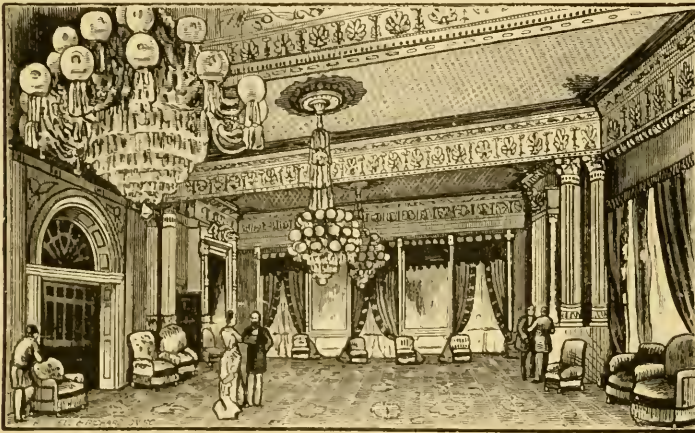
TREASURY DEPARTMENT.

Resignation of General Washington," were painted by John Trumbull, son of Governor Trumbull, of Connecticut, and for a time an officer of General Washington's staff. The chief value these paintings have lies in the fact that every face in them is a portrait. These four pictures cost the Government \$32,000. Beside these are "De Soto Discovering the Mississippi," by Wm. H. Powell, for which the Government paid \$15,000; "The Landing of Columbus," by Vanderlyn, \$12,000; "The Baptism of Pocahontas," by Chapman, \$10,000; and "The Embarkation of the Pilgrims," by Weir, \$10,000. There are four doors opening into the rotunda, and over each is an *alto relievo*, viz.: over the north door, "Penn's Treaty with the Indians in 1682," by Gevelot; over the south door, "The Conflict between Daniel Boone and the Indians in 1775," by Causici; over the east door, "The Landing

of the Pilgrims on Plymouth Rock," also by Causici; and over the west door is the "Preservation of Captain Smith, by Pocahontas," by Capellano. Above the architrave is a fresco in chiaro-oscuro of sketches from American history. The work was begun by Brumidi, and at his death was taken up by one of the masters of his school. It will, perhaps, be completed by the end of the present year. In the canopy above is Brumidi's allegorical painting, representing "Washington Seated in Majesty." By climbing 365 steps the visitor may ascend to the top of the dome, whence a magnificent view of the city of Washington and the surrounding country may be had.

The old hall of the House of Representatives is reached by passing through the south door of the rotunda. The finest piece of sculptured work in Wash-

ington is the marble clock in this hall. It is by Franzoni, and represents the "Genius of History Making up Her Records." This hall is now known as "Statuary Hall," and is reserved for the reception of statues—each State



EAST ROOM OF THE WHITE HOUSE.

being permitted to send statues of two of her chosen sons. Of these there are already here Ethan Allen, of Vermont; John Winthrop and Samuel Adams, of Massachusetts; George Clinton and Robert R. Livingston, of New York; Edward D. Baker, of Oregon; William King, of Maine; Nathaniel Greene and Roger Williams, of Rhode Island; Jonathan Trumbull and Roger Sherman, of Connecticut; and Robert F. Stockton and Philip Kearny, of New Jersey. Besides these, there are a plaster cast of Houdan's Washington; Vinnie Ream's Lincoln; a bust of Kosciusko; Ames' bust of Lincoln; statues of Alexander Hamilton, Robert Fulton, and Thomas Jefferson; bust of Thos. Crawford, the designer of the statue of "Freedom" and the Senate bronze doors; a mosaic portrait of Lincoln, made by an Italian who never saw him; portraits of Joshua Giddings, Gunning Bedford, Henry Clay, Charles Carroll

of Carrollton, General Washington, Benjamin West, and Thomas Jefferson. A large safe standing in this hall is filled with papers of historical value, placed there in 1876; the safe is not to be opened till 1976.

Proceeding still further south, through a corridor of handsome proportions, the new hall of the House of Representatives is reached. This is 139 feet long, 93 feet wide, and 36 feet high. Galleries which will accommodate over 1,000 people range about the sides of the chamber, and are always open to the public when the House is in session. There are reserved spaces for families of the Representatives, newspaper correspondents, and the diplomatic corps. The ceiling is a vast skylight, the opaque glass being set in panels in great iron frames, each panel bearing the arms of a State.

On one side of the Speaker's chair is a portrait of Washington, by Vanderlyn; on the other a portrait of Lafayette, by Ary Scheffer, both full length; there are also paintings by Bierstadt. "The Landing of Henry Hudson"



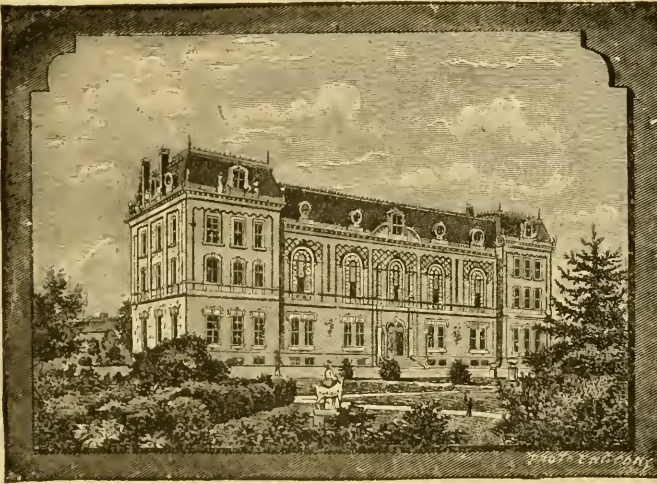
THE INTERIOR DEPARTMENT.

and "Discovery of California," and some frescoes by Brumidi, also find space here. The Capitol is floored with English Minton tiles. The corridors are lined with rooms for the use of the various committees of Congress, elaborately frescoed and furnished. The staircases on the House side leading to the galleries are of Tennessee marble. Over the western staircase is Deutze's great picture, "Westward the Course of Empire Takes its Way;" over the eastern is Carpenter's picture, "The Proclamation of Emancipation." The library of the House is located on the second floor. The ground floor is used for committee-rooms, the House post-office, the House restaurant, folding-rooms, etc., etc. Still further down are the engines and furnaces which supply heat and ventilation to the south end of the building. Underneath the rotunda is the crypt, now nearly all taken up with temporary rooms in which are stored the

surplus books belonging to the Congressional Library proper, for which accommodations are lacking in the rooms assigned to the library above.

Retracing his steps from the House wing, the visitor on entering the rotunda will gain admission to the Congressional Library through swinging doors on the west. Here he finds himself in the midst of a library comprising upwards of 590,000 volumes. They are stored in three beautiful halls, the main one being 91 feet long, 34 feet wide, and 38 feet high; the two side halls are each 95 feet long and 30 feet wide. The general public is admitted to the library between the hours of nine and four every day except Sunday; and persons are at liberty to call for any desired book for purposes of reference,

but are not allowed to take them away. Tables and chairs are furnished for the convenience of readers. Members of Congress and certain officials are allowed to take books away, with the understanding that they must be returned within a certain time.



THE BUREAU OF AGRICULTURE.

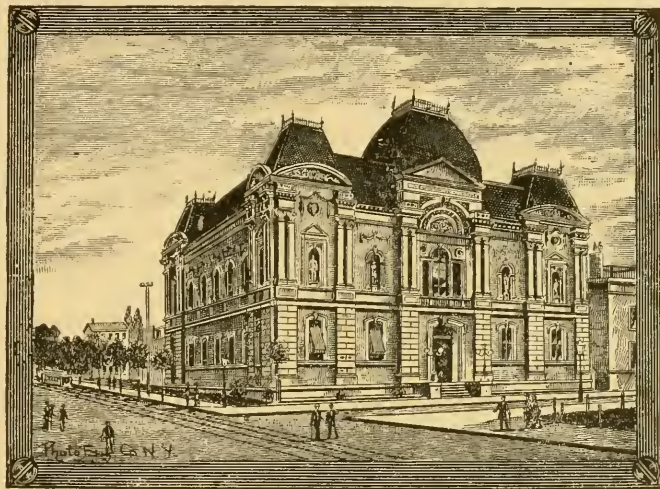
Leaving the library, the visitor

passes through the north door to the Supreme Court Room. This was formerly the Senate Chamber. Admission can only be had when the court is in session. It was in this room that the Electoral Commission sat in February, 1877.

Thence through a broad corridor the visitor passes to the Senate Chamber, a room of similar arrangement to the Hall of the House of Representatives. It is not so large, however, being but $113\frac{1}{4}$ feet long by $80\frac{1}{4}$ wide, and it is much better furnished than the Hall of the House. Back of the Vice-President's chair, and separated from the Senate by a spacious lobby, is the famous Marble Room, where Senators may receive callers during sessions of the body. This is a well-proportioned and beautiful room, the ceiling supported by lofty Corinthian columns of Italian marble, and the walls lined with

costly mirrors. Adjoining it on the north is the President's room; it is so called because it is used by the President whenever he has occasion to visit the Capitol to confer with members of Congress in person. During the last hours of a session the President invariably occupies this room with the members of his Cabinet to sign bills as they are passed by the two Houses, as in case he does not sign before the session closes these enactments fail of becoming laws. At the opposite end of the lobby is the Vice-President's room. Here Henry Wilson died. East of this room is the vast apartment known as the Ladies' Reception-room, where ladies may come to call on Senators on business. Still further south is the post-office of the Senate, from which entrance is gained to the office of the Sergeant-at-Arms. On the north side of the Senate Chamber are the offices of the Secretary of the Senate.

Passing out upon the portico over the eastern entrance to the Senate, the celebrated Crawford Bronze Door will be found worthy of attention. It illus-



THE CORCORAN GALLERY OF ART.

trates Revolutionary history, and cost in the neighborhood of \$60,000. It was cast at Chicopee, Mass. Over the centre of the portico are a number of figures illustrating the "Progress of American Civilization and the Decadence of the Indian Race." Returning to the interior, the visitor will find over the staircase on the west side of the Senate Chamber, Walker's oil painting of "The Battle of Chapultepec," in many respects one of the most remarkable works of art in Washington; over the east staircase hangs Powell's painting of "Perry's Victory at Put-in-Bay, Lake Erie." The west staircase on the Senate side is of white marble; on the east side it is of Tennessee marble. The ground floor is occupied by committee-rooms, bath-rooms, the Senate restaurant, etc. In the basement is located the heating and ventilating apparatus—well worth a visit.

The central building, situated on the summit of a gentle elevation, was designed chiefly by B. H. Latrobe, and commenced in 1793. The extension, with the dome, was designed by Thomas U. Walter. The grounds consist of 35 acres. It was burned by the British troops in 1814, completed in 1827, and extended by the addition of two spacious wings in 1851-59.

The new Hall of Representatives was occupied in 1857, and the Senate Chamber in 1859. During the war of the Rebellion the work was carried on; the great dome rose from day to day while the city was an intrenched camp, and at the close of 1863 the statue of "Freedom" was lifted to its place.

There are many other objects of interest in the Capitol building to which a lack of space prevents reference. Regularly authorized guides may be found in the building, who are allowed to charge visitors a moderate fee for their services.

THE BOTANICAL GARDENS.

The visitor may pass out of the western entrance and in a very few minutes' walk reach the Botanical Gardens, with their eleven conservatories, the largest being 300 feet long. To naturalists and lovers of rare plants and trees, there is much here of highest interest.

On the east of the President's house is the massive Treasury building, of freestone and granite, 468 feet by 264, with Ionic porticoes on all four sides, the monolithic columns on the south front being $31\frac{1}{2}$ feet high and $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet in diameter; and on the west, the magnificent building for the State, War, and Navy Departments, of granite, in the Roman-Doric style, with four façades, of which those on the north and south, and on the east and west respectively, correspond.

THE TREASURY DEPARTMENT.

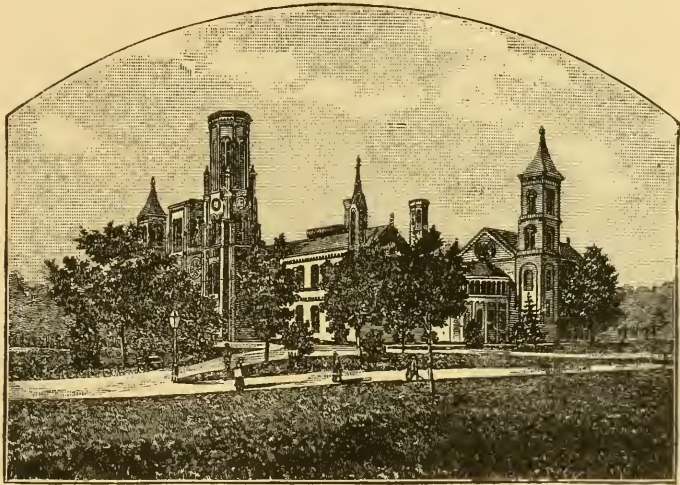
The doors of the Treasury Department are open at nine o'clock in the morning, and close to the general public at two in the afternoon. The White House is not open to visitors till ten A.M., and by the time the objects of interest in the Treasury Department have been seen, an entrance can be had to the President's house, the grounds of which adjoin those of the Treasury.

The Department building covers the space occupied by two blocks. It is 300 feet wide at the north and south fronts, and 582 feet long. The four fronts are elaborately finished in the colonnade style, with porticoes on the north, south, and west fronts. The east front, the first one built, is of Vir-

ginia freestone; the others are of the Dix Island granite. The structure cost nearly \$7,000,000. It was many years in building, having been added to from time to time, as the increase of business required; and yet it is not large enough to accommodate all the bureaus belonging to the Treasury. The cash-room is the most beautiful in the building, if not in all Washington. The walls and ceilings are entirely of foreign marbles. A permit from the Treasurer of the United States can readily be secured, by means of which the great vaults can be seen, the visitors being under charge of a Government official. The offices of the Secretary of the Treasury are well worth examining. They are richly and tastefully furnished, and the rooms, facing south, are of noble and beautiful proportions.

THE WHITE HOUSE.

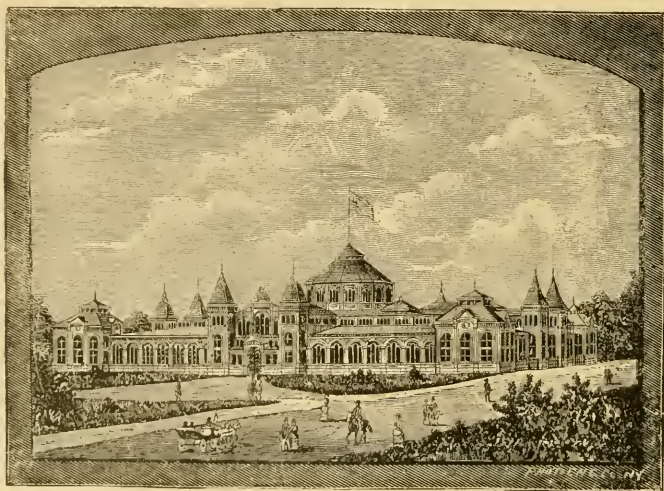
The Executive Mansion, standing on elevated grounds between the Treasury on the east and the War, State, and Navy Department buildings on the west, is two stories



THE SMITHSONIAN INSTITUTION.

high and 170 feet long. It is modeled after the palace of the Duke of Leinster, the architect, James Hoban, being from Ireland. It is of sandstone, painted white. It fronts north on Pennsylvania Avenue, across which is Lafayette Park. From the north front projects a huge portico, under which the carriages of visitors are driven. The south front looks upon a lovely park stretching down to the Washington Monument. The visitor enters at the north door, and finds himself at once in a magnificent vestibule, 40 by 50 feet in size. A sash screen, filled with colored and ornamented glass, separates the vestibule from the corridor running in front of the Blue, Red, and Green parlors and the State dining-room. Ushers are in attendance to show to visitors those portions of the house open to the public. The East Room is 80 feet long by 40 in width, and is 24 feet high. The ceilings are

paneled and richly frescoed, while the chandeliers, mirrors, furniture, and carpets are of the most magnificent description. This room is used on all occasions of ceremony, grand receptions, etc. The Green Room adjoins on the west, and is so called because it is entirely furnished and adorned in green. The Blue Room comes next, furnished in blue; in turn the Red Room is entered, still proceeding west. This last is used more than any other, as the sitting-room for the President's family. The State dining-room is in the southwest corner of the house. It is 40 by 30 feet, and is very richly furnished. The family dining-room is also on the first floor, in the northwestern part of the house. The east half of the floor above is used for the transac-



NATIONAL MUSEUM BUILDING.

tion of public business. Here the clerks and secretaries are found, and here is the Cabinet Room, where Cabinet sessions are held, and where the President usually receives visitors on ordinary routine business. The kitchens, storerooms, servants' quarters, etc., are in the basement. The conser-

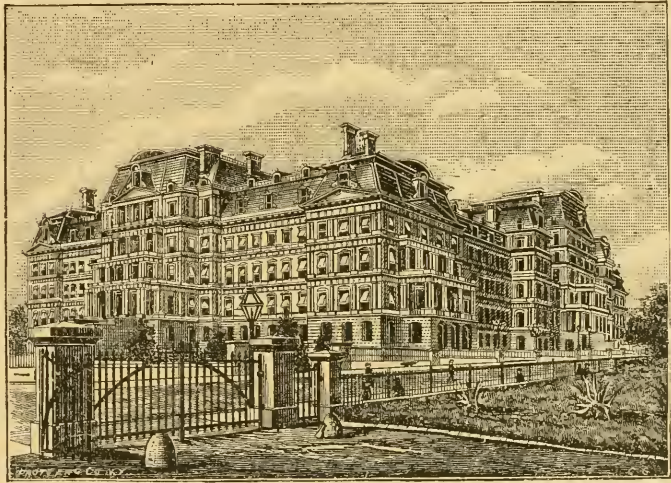
vatory is attached to the west end of the building. It is beautiful and completely appointed, and cost over \$40,000. The Executive stables are at some distance southwest of the mansion. They cost over \$30,000. The White House was first occupied by John Adams, in 1800, the corner-stone having been laid in 1792. It was burned by the British in 1814. The cost of the present structure was something over \$300,000. Portraits of the various Presidents are hung throughout the building.

THE INTERIOR DEPARTMENT.

The Department of the Interior has a grand Doric building, commonly known as the Patent Office. A visitor can take one of the cars on the Metropolitan Street Railway and in five minutes reach the Interior Department

building, within which are located the Patent Office, the General Land Office, the Geological, the Indian Office, the Census Office, the Educational Bureau, etc. For the purpose of saving time, however, he may wisely stop at Tenth Street, whereon is located within half a square of "F" Street the old Ford's Theatre in which President Lincoln was assassinated, and the house directly opposite, where the great martyr died. The old theatre is now used as the Army Medical Museum, having been bought by the Government after the assassination.

The Interior Department building covers two squares of ground, between Seventh and Ninth and "F" and "G" Streets. Its dimensions are 410 by 275 feet. It is of the Doric style of architecture. The centre, the first part built, is of freestone, the rest of marble and granite, and its cost was nearly \$3,000,000. There are thousands of patent models and other objects of interest in this building.



THE WAR, STATE, AND NAVY DEPARTMENTS.

THE WAR, STATE, AND NAVY DEPARTMENTS.

A short walk brings the visitor to the building occupied by the War, State, and Navy Departments, just west of the White House. This is one of the most beautiful structures in Washington. It is in the Italian renaissance style, and is built of Maine and Virginia granite. The architect was A. B. Mullett. It is 342 feet in width, and runs 567 feet from north to south. The interior finishing is in harmony with the exterior. Taking everything into consideration, it is probably finished more handsomely and expensively than any other public building in the country. The State Department has charge of the original Declaration of Independence. The War and Navy Departments have each museums of interesting relics, etc., and superb libraries. In all the departmental buildings are to be seen portraits of the various Secre-

taries, from the earliest days to the present. It will be some years before this building is entirely finished, for, although it is now occupied, the west wing yet remains to be built.

THE DISTRICT COURT-HOUSE,

where the District Courts hold their sessions, is located on the southern part of Judiciary Square, between Fourth and Fifth and "D" and "G" Streets. The new building for the accommodation of the Pension Bureau is now being constructed on the north side of this square. It was in the District Court-House that Guiteau was tried and the famous Star Route trial was held.

The Post-Office Department building stands opposite to the Interior Department building, on the square bounded by "E" and "F" and Seventh and Eighth Streets. It is of white marble, and is of the Corinthian style of architecture. The Dead-Letter Office is the chief object of interest in this building, to which access is readily had.

The Department of Justice, or Attorney-General's office, is situated at the corner of Sixteenth-and-a-half Street and Pennsylvania Avenue, north of the Treasury Department. The building, of brick and brown-stone, was erected by the Freedman's Bank for its own uses, and was subsequently purchased by the Government. There is nothing here to attract the tourist.

THE BUREAU OF ENGRAVING AND PRINTING

is located on an eminence but a short distance southwest of the Agricultural building. Here the printing of Government bonds, greenbacks, national bank notes, internal revenue stamps, etc., etc., is done. No place in Washington is more attractive to visitors. The building is very handsome in itself, and with its wonderful machinery and hundreds of employés rates second to none in interest.

The Washington Monument is but a short distance south of this building. It is undoubtedly the loftiest artificial structure in the world.

The 1880 Census Office, having finished its work, is in a few rooms over the Second National Bank, Seventh Street, opposite the Post-Office Department.

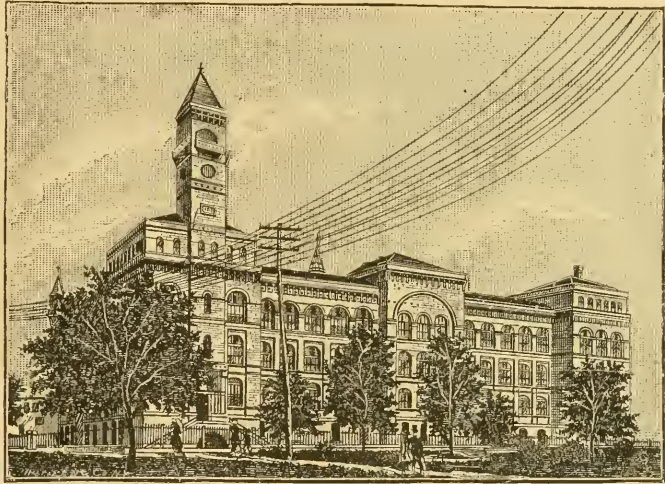
The Smithsonian Institution is located just east of the Agricultural Bureau. It is of a red stone, and with its towers and gables of the twelfth century, Norman style of architecture, makes a very pleasing impression. An

immense volume would be required to catalogue the curiosities to be found here. Adjoining it on the east is the still more interesting National Museum building, which is also crowded with curios from all parts of the world. It was in this building, then incomplete, that the Garfield Inaugural Ball was held in 1881

THE GOVERNMENT PRINTING-OFFICE.

This is said to be the largest and best equipped printing-office in the world. It is situated at the corner of "H" and North Capitol Streets, and covers more than two-thirds of a square of ground. It is in a building 300 feet by 175, has a complete equipment, and manufactures about 1,000,000 volumes annually.

The Navy Yard covers about 27 acres, and though not much used for the construction of vessels, is of great importance in manufacturing and storing supplies. Besides the public buildings



THE BUREAU OF ENGRAVING AND PRINTING.

already erected, others in different parts of the city are rented for the Department of Justice, Pension Office, Commissary Bureau, and other branches of service.

THE ARMY MEDICAL MUSEUM

contains 10,000 MS. volumes of hospital reports and a large assemblage of specimens representing the effects of wounds, diseases, and surgical operations. The microscopic section is admirable; and the models of barracks, hospitals, ambulances, and surgical instruments, are not equaled in any similar collection. The medical library contains about 40,000 volumes.

The great interests centering in the legislation for over 55,000,000 of people, bring to the city multitudes of people of every class and for various ob-

jects; and its pleasant winter climate makes it attractive to persons of wealth and leisure from all parts of the country, and to visitors from other lands. The fashionable season begins with the meeting of Congress in December. From Christmas to Lent, receptions, balls, and dinners abound; the levees of the President, members of the Cabinet, and Speaker of the House, are open to all comers; the President receives the calls of the public, and on Jan. 1st his reception is attended by foreign ministers in official costume, officers of the Army and Navy in uniform, officers of the Government, members of Congress, and citizens generally.

The Pension Office was located (1889) in the Shepherd Building, at the corner of Twelfth Street and Pennsylvania Avenue.



ARLINGTON, HOME OF ROBERT E. LEE.

In the long summer evenings it is the almost universal custom in Washington to drive out after dinner to the Soldiers' Home, where there are twenty miles of the finest roadways in the world in the noble public park belong-

ing to this institution, and is well deserving a visit. In the winter the bright, bracing afternoons offer the most favorable opportunities for this purpose.

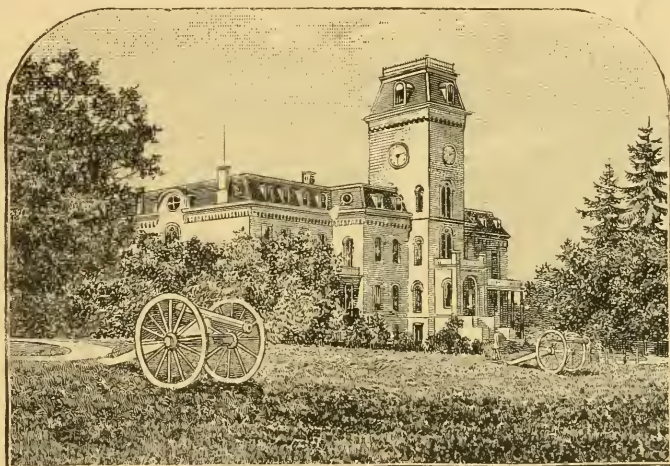
The Soldiers' Home, a national institution for invalid soldiers, was established in 1851. It has since been greatly enlarged, and is maintained with a fund accumulated by retaining $12\frac{1}{2}$ cents a month from the pay of each private soldier. The buildings are handsome, and the grounds adorned with meadows, groves, and lakes. The Naval Hospital supplies a similar home for sick and disabled seamen of the Navy. The buildings of the Home are for the most part of Ohio or other white sandstone, and while they are picturesque, afford most comfortable homes for the old veterans. President Lincoln occupied one of these cottages for his summer residence.

THE DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

occupies a building of brick and brown-stone, in the renaissance style, 170 feet by 61, with green-houses, graperies, and experimental grounds, around it, covering 10 acres. The business of the Department is the distribution over the country of seeds, plants, and general agricultural information.

THE UNITED STATES NAVAL OBSERVATORY.

The United States Naval Observatory is on the Potomac, between Washington and Georgetown. The grounds attached to it are 19 acres in extent. From the flagstaff on the dome of the principal building a signal-ball is dropped daily at noon, transmitting by telegraphic connections the mean time to all parts of the United States. Another edifice has been specially adapted to the reception and employment of the great equatorial telescope made by Alvan Clark, and mounted in 1873. It has an object-glass of 26 inches, and cost nearly \$50,000.



THE SOLDIERS' HOME.

MOUNT VERNON.

The Tomb of George Washington is at Mount Vernon, Washington's old home, seventeen miles down the beautiful Potomac. Every day except Sunday a steamer runs to Mount Vernon for the accommodation of tourists, leaving the city at nine A.M. and returning at four P.M.

The city has 120 churches. Some of the public halls are Lincoln, Odd Fellows', Willard's, Tallmadge, and the Masonic Temple; and of the hotels, Willard's, the Arlington, Ebbitt House, Riggs House, National, and Metropolitan are widely known. Boarding-houses greatly abound. The number of Government officers and clerks is about 7,000. During the Rebellion

Washington was the centre of vast military operations. The military works were serviceable for the safety of the city after the disasters of 1862, and when Early marched on the city. Throughout the war Washington was a vast depot for military supplies; long trains of army wagons were almost constantly passing through its streets; immense hospitals for the sick and wounded were erected, and many churches, public institutions, and the Capitol itself, were at times given up to this service.

WILLARD'S HOTEL.

While there are a great many noble buildings and historic spots in Washington which have the highest interest to the visitor, Willard's Hotel stands

second to none of them, historically considered.

It was in the very early days of the Republic, and very soon after the National Government had become fixed in its new quarters on the Potomac, that the first humble beginning of what is now a magnificent and luxurious structure,



MOUNT VERNON.

ure, was made on a spot directly adjoining the present site of the house.

The enterprise of that early day located with wonderful accuracy the point that would be most convenient and most desirable for a hotel. Willard's was known seventy-five years ago as the "City" Hotel, subsequently it was called "Williamson's," and later on it took the name of "Fuller's," which it kept until a few years before the Civil War, when, passing into the hands of the Willards, it was given its present name.

From a time whereof the memory of even the oldest inhabitant of the city runneth not to the contrary, our Presidents have gone from the suites of rooms on the second floor at the corner of Pennsylvania Avenue and Fourteenth Street, escorted with all the pomp and pageantry which have grown

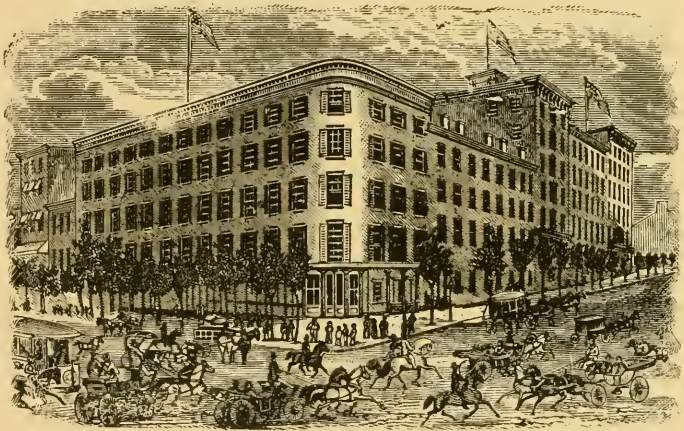
up around the ceremony, to the east front of the noble Capitol building, there to assume the oath of their high office in the presence of waiting thousands, and to deliver their inaugural addresses which marked out the policy to be pursued by the new administration.

Of the vast armies which ebbed and flowed through Washington during the late war, there are thousands of old soldiers who will recall with delight the hours spent within the hospitable doors of Willard's. The old statesmen who served their country in the halls of Congress or the Cabinets of the Presidents will recall, at the sound of the name, the grave and patriotic consultations held within the walls of the famous old house—consultations which had for their object the happiness of millions of people, the welfare of the great Republic.

THE CORCORAN GALLERY OF ART.

This building, with a large number of paintings and an endowment fund

of \$900,000, was given to the United States by Mr. W. W. Corcoran, a retired banker of great wealth, well known for his generous endowments, who resided in Washington until his death in 1888. Handsome additions of works of art are made to the gallery every year, and it is well worth a visit.



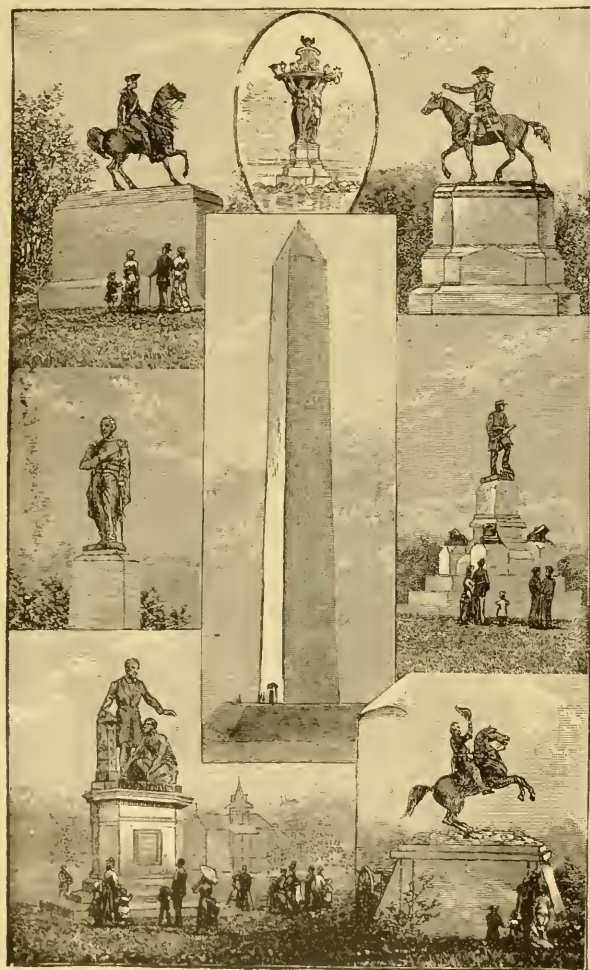
WILLARD'S HOTEL.

LAFAYETTE SQUARE.

Leaving the art gallery and passing east, this lovely park is reached by a walk of half a square. In the centre is Clark Mills' celebrated equestrian statue of General Jackson. The public parks are kept in admirable order by appropriations made by Congress, and expended under the direction of an officer of the Army Engineers detailed to the charge of public buildings and grounds.

STATUES AND MONUMENTS.

There are a great many statues of distinguished soldiers and statesmen scattered over the city, located in the various parks and squares. Of these may be enumerated the Thomas equestrian statue, in Thomas circle, at the



STATUES AND MONUMENTS.

junction of Fourteenth Street and Vermont Avenue; Scott's equestrian statue in Scott circle, at the junction of Sixteenth Street and Massachusetts Avenue; McPherson's equestrian statue in McPherson Square, Fifteenth and "K" Streets; Farragut's statue in Farragut Square, Seventeenth and "K" Streets; Jackson's equestrian statue, fronting the White House; Rawlins' equestrian statue, New York Avenue, between Eighteenth and Nineteenth Streets; equestrian statue of Washington in Georgetown circle, Pennsylvania Avenue and Twenty-third Street; these are all in the northwestern part of the city; east of the Capitol, in Stanton Square, at the intersection of Maryland and Massachu-

setts Avenues, is the equestrian statue of General Nathaniel Greene, of Revolutionary fame; and in Lincoln Square, due east of the Capitol a half a mile or more, is the bronze group, called "Emancipation," representing President Lincoln striking the manacles off the slave. The National monument to Washington was commenced in 1848, and after long delay is now

completed as a lofty and plain obelisk, 70 feet square at the base and 600 feet high.

The population in 1880 was 147,293, and in 1889 was estimated to be 185,000. The yearly city expenditures average \$3,500,000, the cost *per capita* being \$17.38. The natural situation of the city is pleasant and salubrious. It is one of the handsomest and most commodious cities in the world. Its great prosperity is due to the presence of the National Government. It has considerable retail trade, but the manufacturing or other business is unimportant.

VARIOUS INSTITUTIONS.

The Columbia Institute for the Deaf and Dumb, at Kendall Green, accommodates 100 pupils in beautiful buildings, surrounded with 100 acres; the Hospital for the Insane has a commodious building in the midst of 400 acres, and shelters 600 patients; Providence Hospital has 200 inmates; the Louise Home is a beautiful building, on the finest avenue of the city, erected and endowed by Mr. Corcoran as a memorial of his daughter and a home for gentlewomen who have become poor. The Columbia Woman's Hospital, the Washington Orphan Asylum, Soldiers' and Sailors' Orphans' Home, St. Joseph's and St. Vincent's Orphan Asylums, St. John's Hospital for Children, the Freedmen's Hospital, and the Home for the Aged, under the care of "The Little Sisters of the Poor," are among the charitable institutions with which the city abounds. Among its institutions of learning are Columbian University, Gonzaga College, under Jesuit instruction, and Howard University, for colored youth, under Congregational and Presbyterian supervision.

NEW YORK CITY.



NEW YORK, one of the greatest cities of modern times, is the most important city and seaport in the United States, and the third in the civilized world. If to the population of New York in 1889 we add that of Brooklyn, Jersey City, and other neighboring communities, which are practically the suburbs of New York, we find within a radius of twenty-five miles from the City Hall a compact population of nearly 3,000,000, which is the real population of the great city. Its wonderful increase can be attributed in great part to its admirable situation. The water in the outer and inner bay and in the river is so deep that great ships lie close to the piers. The navigation of the harbor is seldom impeded by ice, even when the Chesapeake and others are frozen up. The canal system connects it not only with Lake Ontario and Lake Erie, but also with the Ohio River, which gives it an outlet to the Mississippi and the Gulf of Mexico. Soon after the opening of the Erie Canal in 1825, New York, which was at that time smaller than Philadelphia, began to make tremendous strides, and soon was far in advance of all other American cities. Its facilities for cheap communication with the Great West give it great advantage over Boston and other Eastern coast cities, and for this reason they can never rival it. Philadelphia and Baltimore are nearer the West, but are at a considerable distance from the ocean, and when their vessels arrive at the open sea they are left behind in the race to Europe, as they have a much further distance to go than vessels leaving New York, which is a great loss and disadvantage for steamers, not only in time and expense, but in earning capacity, as every extra ton of coal carried to complete the voyage means one ton of freight less, as it reduces the carrying capacity for freight to just that extent. It is true the coal consumed in the voyage can be purchased cheaper in Baltimore and Philadelphia. New York's imports are annually about \$320,000,000; domestic exports about \$300,000,000; foreign exports about \$13,000,000. The exports would probably be far in excess of the imports were it not for the fact that a great many goods from the West and South are exported by way of New Orleans, while most of the valuable articles brought from abroad that are consumed in the same States come in by way of New York.

New York is situated on the east side of the mouth of the Hudson River, at its junction with the East River, which opens into Long Island Sound, in the State of New York, 18 miles from the ocean, and separated from the mainland by a narrow strait, called the Harlem River, on the east, and on the west by Spuyten Duyvil Creek. This forms the island of Manhattan. The city also includes several smaller islands, containing the fortifications in the harbor and the public institutions in the East River, and since 1874 a considerable portion of the mainland north of Manhattan Island. Its boundaries (1889) are Yonkers on the north, the Bronx River and the East River on the east, the bay on the south, and the North or Hudson River on the west. The city extends 16 miles north from the Battery, its middle part is $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles wide, and its total area $41\frac{1}{2}$ square miles.

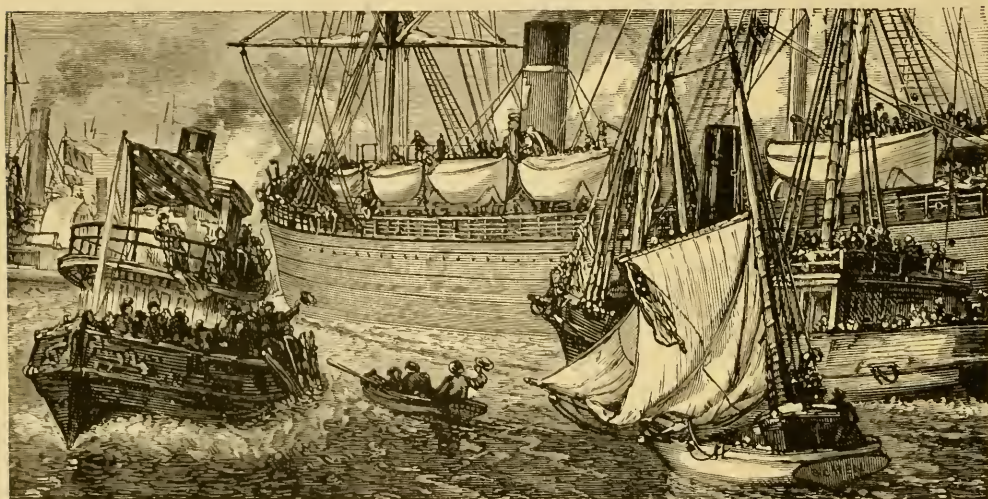
HISTORICAL EPITOME.

September 9, 1609, Henry Hudson, an Englishman in the employ of the Dutch East India Company, sailed his little vessel into New York Bay, and commenced his voyage up the river to which his name is attached, which he explored to a point above Hudson. All the land which he discovered was claimed by the Dutch, and named New Netherland, and in 1611 the States-General offered special privileges to any company opening and encouraging trade with the natives of their newly-acquired possessions. This encouragement procured not only trading, but colonization. In 1613 a fort was built on Manhattan Island, but the settlement about it was broken up by the Eng-



BARTHOLDI STATUE—"LIBERTY ENLIGHTENING THE WORLD."

lish. In the following year another Dutch colony established itself on the same spot, and continued in possession. In 1621 the prospects of a lucrative commerce with America had induced certain merchants in Holland to combine in the organization of the Dutch West India Company, for colonization purposes, and two years later this company took out eighteen families, who settled at Fort Orange (Albany), and thirty families, who made a settlement on Manhattan Island, which they bought for \$24, and founded New Amsterdam, now New York. This was accomplished by Peter Minnits, the Director-General, who, representing the Dutch West India Company, came here to take charge of their colonies. He was an able Governor.



SCENE IN NEW YORK BAY.

The English opposition to the Dutch colonization schemes was persistent from the beginning, and fruitful of much conflict. The English claimed the territory north of Virginia on the ground of the anterior discoveries by Cabot; and in 1664 a charter was granted by Charles II. to the Duke of York, which covered all the lands lying between the Hudson and the Delaware, and included New Netherland, as well as lands already held by prior grant, by Connecticut, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire. In the summer of the year in which this charter was given, Colonel Nicolls was sent from England with sufficient force, and on arriving at New Amsterdam demanded the surrender of the Dutch possessions. The demand was acceded to by Governor Stuyvesant, who was powerless to prevent its enforcement, and the country in question passed into the hands of the English without a struggle. The name New

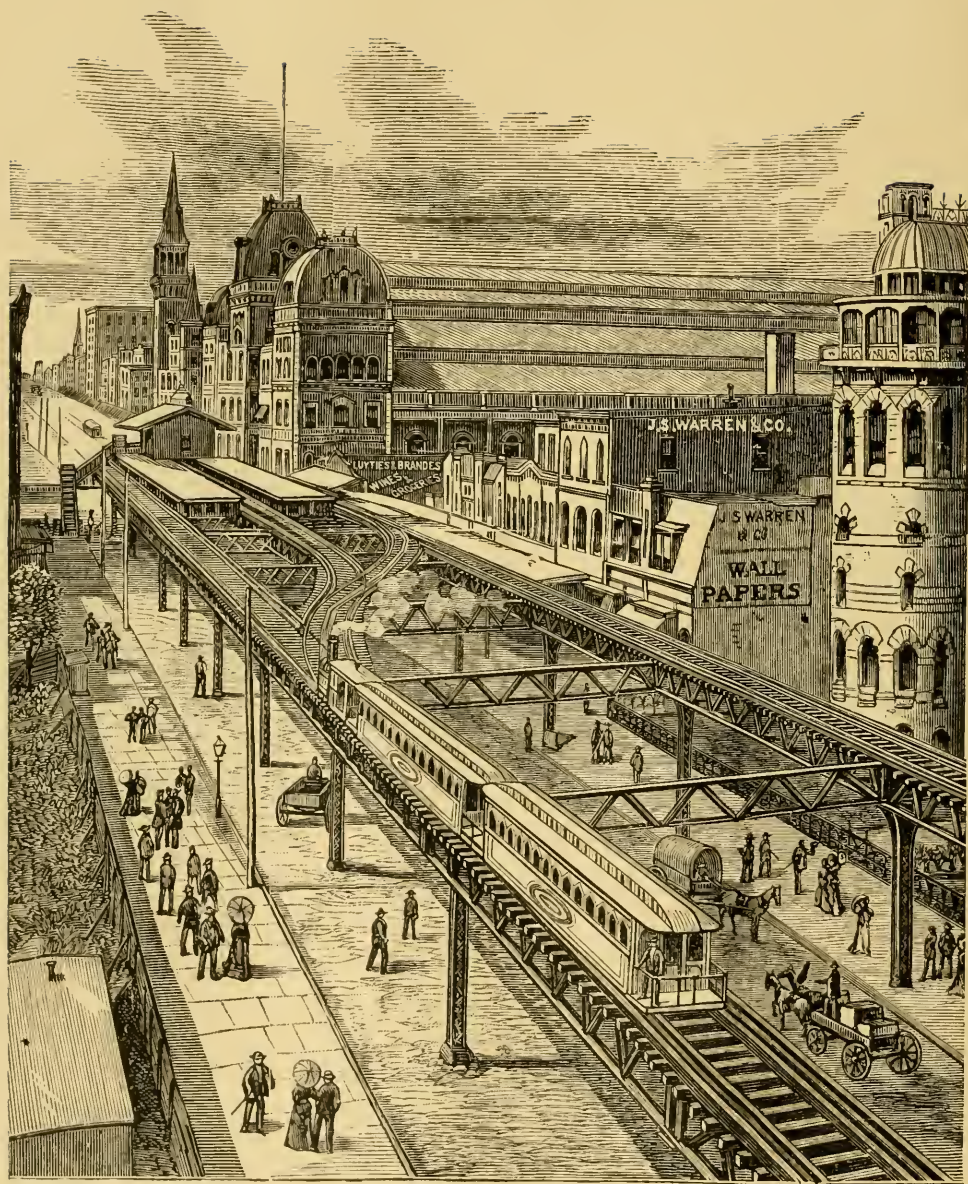
York was now given both to the settlement on Manhattan Island and to the entire province, and that of Albany to Fort Orange. A subsequent recapture by the Dutch was followed by a speedy restoration to the English; and on the Duke of York ascending the throne of England under the title of James II., the province passed into the possession of the Crown.

In 1696 the first Trinity Church was built. A slave market was established in 1711. The *New York Gazette* was established in 1725; this was the first newspaper published in the city. About 1730 a line of stages was established between New York and Boston; they occupied two weeks in making the trip. In 1750 the first theatre in the city was opened. In 1755 the Stamp Act created great excitement; the Colonial Congress assembled in the city, and the Stamp Act was publicly burned. In 1765 the Sons of Liberty were organized. The statue of George III. was destroyed in 1770, and the duty on tea was resisted in the same year. In 1774 a ship laden with tea was returned to England after eighteen chests were destroyed. In 1776 the city was occupied by an American force, but the battles of Long Island and others in the immediate vicinity being disastrous to our arms, Washington and his army abandoned it, and the British took possession of the city and held it for seven years, from August 26, 1776, to November 23, 1783. The building of the present City Hall was commenced in 1803, and finished in 1812. Robert Fulton made his first steamboat voyage to Albany in 1807, and in 1812 began running the ferries from New York to Brooklyn by steam. In the same year gas was introduced, but did not come into general use until 1825.

The Erie Canal was begun in 1817 and finished in 1825. The effect of this great work was to enrich the State, while opening the way for the stream of commerce which has resulted in making the city of New York the metropolis of the Western Continent.

In 1826 the Hudson & Mohawk Railroad was chartered—probably the first railroad charter granted in the country. This road was commenced in 1830, and the New York & Erie in 1836. The gradual absorption of the various New York lines which form the Hudson River Railroad, and the consolidation of the New York Central and Hudson River Railroads into one powerful four-track trunk line connecting the metropolis with the West, were significant events in the development of the city and State.

In 1832 an epidemic of cholera caused the death of nearly 4,000 persons, and in 1834 about 1,000. The east side of the city below Wall Street was destroyed by fire in 1835, the entire loss being \$18,000,000. In 1837 a finan-



GRAND CENTRAL DEPOT SHOWING ELEVATED RAILROAD, N. Y.

cial panic brought failures and general loss to the entire country. The Astor Place riots in 1849, and the cholera epidemic of that year, which carried off 5,071 persons, were important events. The first city railroad was built in 1852, and on July 14, 1853, the Crystal Palace Industrial Exhibition was opened, the President of the United States officiating. A second financial panic occurred in 1857. From 1860 to 1865 the city was engaged in patriotic and generous service in behalf of the Union, threatened by the secession of the Southern States. In the fall of 1873 occurred the great financial panic which began with the failure of Jay Cooke & Co. During several years at this period an investigation took place into the acts of the so-called "Tweed Ring," by which the city had been plundered of many millions of dollars. The arrest, flight, and punishment of most of the offenders, and the death of Tweed himself in prison, was a lesson that seems to have been forgotten by the aldermen that granted the Broadway Railroad franchise in 1884, which led to the indictment of all but two. In 1883-4 there was great depression in business, which at one time almost amounted to a panic. The election in the fall of 1884, which placed Grover Cleveland in the Presidency, created great excitement in the city, and caused general depression in trade, which, after the inauguration, speedily revived.

New York is connected with Brooklyn by the Brooklyn Bridge, also by numerous steam ferries; there are also many large steam ferry-boats running to Jersey City and other places. Manhattan Island is $13\frac{1}{2}$ miles long and one and three-fifths wide. There are eighty-five piers or wharves on the Hudson River, and seventy-five on the East River. At the piers on both sides of each river is accommodated the great sailing commerce of the city. A ridge runs through the centre of the city like a backbone; it rises at Washington Heights to 238 feet. Avenues 100 feet wide and 8 or 10 miles long, mostly in straight lines, are crossed at right angles by streets from 50 to 100 feet wide, extending from river to river. There are five avenues designated respectively A, B, C, D, and E. The numbered cross-streets are designated east and west from Fifth Avenue. There are also 13 numbered avenues, nearly 200 numbered streets, and about 400 named streets, avenues, etc.

NOTABLE BUILDINGS.

New York is built of brick, sandstone, granite, iron, and white marble. Among its finest edifices are the City Hall, Custom-House, County Court-House, Post-Office, Trinity Church, Grace Church, two universities, the Roman

Catholic Cathedral, Academy of Music, Metropolitan Opera House, Casino, Cooper Institute, numerous great hotels, and many fine public and private structures. Besides, there are thirty-five Roman Catholic schools and colleges and academies of the religious orders. The hospitals and institutions of charity are on a liberal scale; and besides legal outdoor relief, the poor are visited and cared for by a public society, with agents in every direction. Among the charities are asylums for insane, blind, deaf and dumb, magdalenas, foundlings,



BROADWAY AND TRINITY CHURCH.

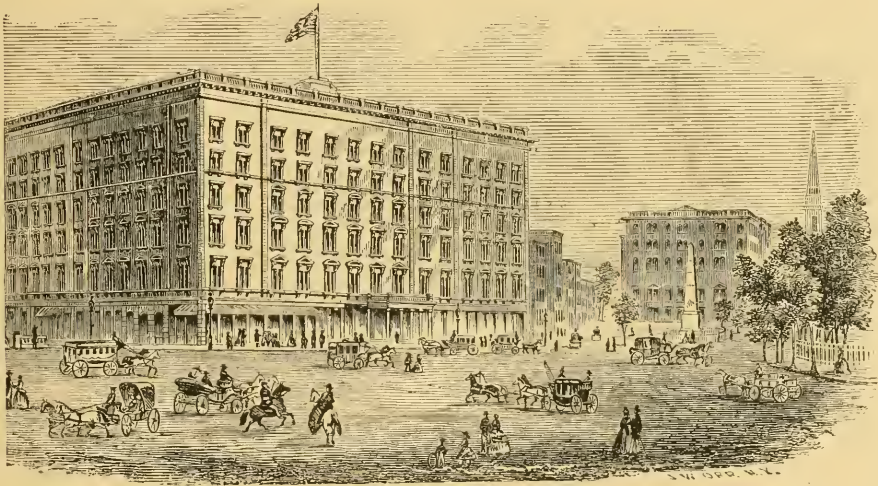
etc. The Astor Free Library, founded by John Jacob Astor, has 150,000 carefully selected volumes; the Mercantile Library, 150,000 volumes, with a large, reading-room; Society Library, 64,000; Apprentices' Library, 50,000, with rich museums of antiquities; the Cooper Institute, a present to the city by Peter Cooper, has a free reading-room, picture-gallery, art-schools, etc. Annual art exhibitions are given by the National Academy of Design, Dusseldorf, and International Galleries.

Among the clubs are the Army and Navy, Knickerbocker, Lotos, Manhattan, Century, Down-Town, Harmonie, Merchants', New York, Press, Racquet, St. Nicholas, Union League, Union, Arion and Liederkrantz (singing), and University.

The Metropolitan Museum of Art was founded in 1870 for the purpose of encouraging the study of the fine arts, and the application of the principles of art to manufactures and to practical life, and for the purpose of furnishing popular instruction. The building was erected at a cost of \$500,000, and

opened March 30, 1880, by the President of the United States. It is located in Central Park at Fifth Avenue and Eighty-second Street. It is 218 feet long and 95 broad, and contains numerous articles of great beauty and interest. It is open free of charge to the public on Wednesdays, Thursdays, Fridays, and Saturdays; 50 cents is charged for admission on Mondays and Tuesdays. The Museum of Natural History is located in Central Park at Eighty-first Street and Eighth Avenue; admission free. The city contains numerous art galleries, over 300 public schools, and about 400 churches. The Bartholdi statue is on Bedloe's Island, a short distance from the Battery, which is at the foot of Broadway.

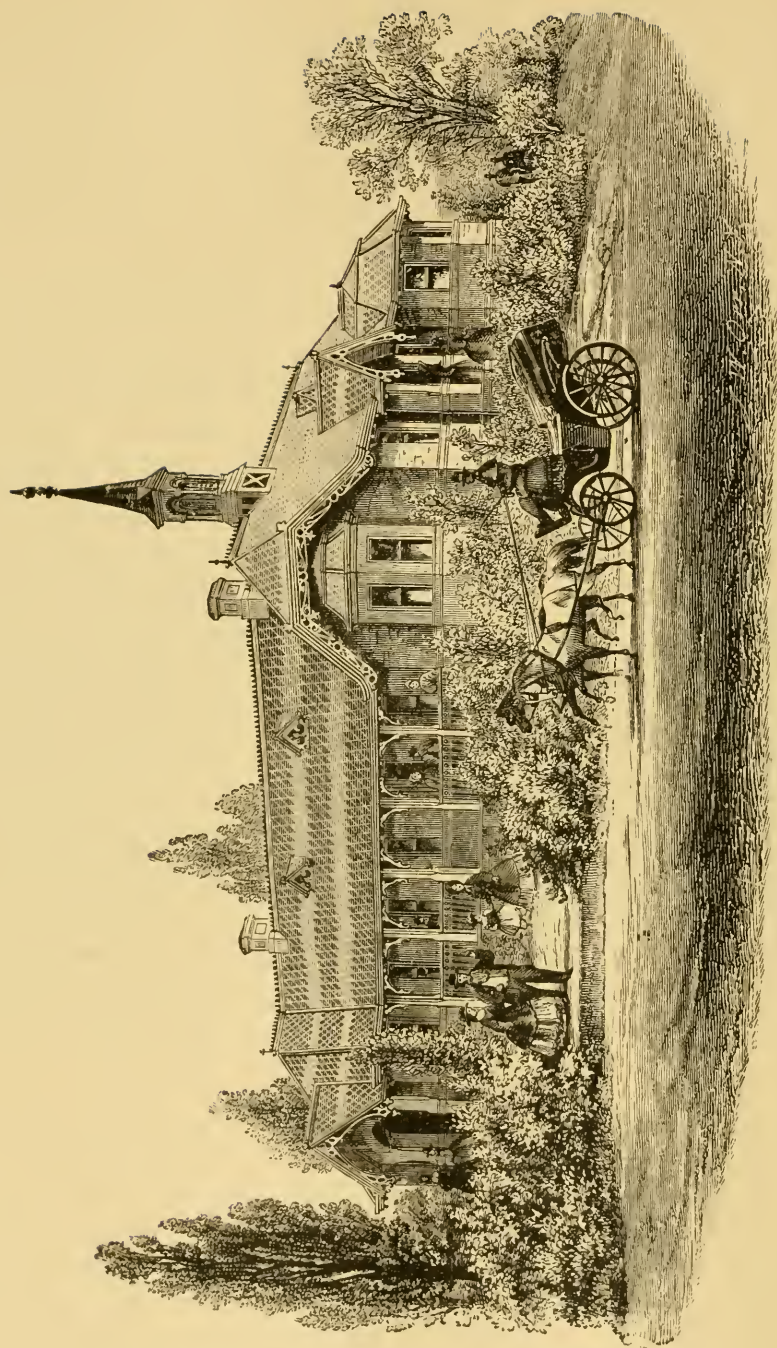
The Stock Exchange is a fine white marble building, located in Broad



FIFTH AVENUE HOTEL.

Street, having an extension to Wall Street and running back to New Street. Seats in the Exchange are now worth \$32,000. None but members are allowed on the floor. Ten thousand dollars is paid to the heirs of every deceased member from the Gratuity Fund established by the Exchange.

Among the important buildings deserving notice is St. Patrick's (Roman Catholic) Cathedral, occupying the block on Fifth Avenue, between Fiftieth and Fifty-first Streets. The corner-stone was laid on August 15, 1858, and it was dedicated by Cardinal McCloskey, May 25, 1879. The architecture is of the thirteenth century style, the ground plan being in the form of a Latin cross. The dimensions are: Interior length, 306 feet; breadth of nave and choir, 96 feet, with the chapels, 120 feet; length of transept, 140 feet; height,



VIEW IN CENTRAL PARK.

108 feet. The Fifth Avenue front comprises a central gable 156 feet in height, with towers and spires, each 330 feet high. The building is of white marble, with a base-course of granite. The total cost was about \$2,500,000. The building of the Young Men's Christian Association, Fourth Avenue and Twenty-third Street, was erected in 1869, and cost \$500,000. It is French renaissance in style, five stories high, 175 feet front and 86 feet depth.

Castle Garden is now used as a depot for emigrants, for which purpose it has been employed since 1855. It is situated in the Battery Park, at the extreme southern end of Manhattan Island, convenient for foreign steamers and shipping. The business of receiving, caring for, and shipping to their destination the many thousands of immigrants is in charge of seven Commissioners of Emigration. During a single year 372,880 persons arrived at this port, of whom 320,607 passed through Castle Garden. Their destinations were—Eastern States, 63,368; Western States, 112,119; Southern States, 6,497; New York State, 137,561; Canada, 1,627.

The Croton Aqueduct brings a river of pure soft water from 40 miles distance, which is received in reservoirs of a capacity of 1,500,000,000 gallons, and distributed with such a head as to supply public fountains of 60 and 80 feet jet, and the upper stories of most buildings.

Central Park is laid out in the finest style of landscape gardening, and is two and one-half miles long by three-fifths of a mile wide. It was begun in 1858, and includes between 59th and 110th Streets and between Fifth and Eighth Avenues, and contains 840 acres, in which are two large lakes. It is inferior in some respects to older parks, especially when its trees are compared with old park forests. Its lawns are necessarily limited in space, yet in proportion to the space which it covers it has developed many beauties and much interest for the public. The plans for its laying out were submitted and executed by Frederick Law Olmstead and Calvert Vaux. Four thousand men were engaged on the work in 1858. The ground was a region of hills and swampy hollows, containing a few old farms and mansions. Within five years the transformation was astonishing. The reservoirs within it occupy 142 acres. In addition to this water there are six artificial lakes, containing 42 acres; the lawns cover nearly 110 acres. It contains nearly 10 miles of carriage roads, 28 miles of walks, and nearly 6 miles devoted to equestrians; there are in all 46 bridges. The visitors to the park often number 100,000 a day.

Riverside Park, which is now famous as General Grant's last resting-place,

is situated above Central Park, on the east bank of the Hudson River. It is a long, narrow strip of land, and is visited by thousands from all parts of the country. The tomb can be seen by travelers on the Hudson River boats, as the site commands a fine view of the river. About twenty other smaller public parks are to be found in the city.

New York is the great centre of American finance and commerce. It receives 66 per cent. of all imports, and sends out 50 per cent. of all exports.



THE CUSTOM HOUSE.

The New York & Harlem, the New York, New Haven & Hartford, and the New York Central & Hudson River Railroads terminate at the Grand Central Depot at Forty-second Street, while many railroads terminate at Jersey City, the passengers being carried across the Hudson River on the companies' large and commodious ferry-boats. The Long Island Railroad terminates at Hunter's Point, L. I., and connects with the city by ferry. The finest passenger steamboats in the

world pass up the Hudson, Long Island Sound, and down the Narrows, through the Lower Bay.

GOVERNMENT AND EDUCATION.

The government of the city is vested in the "Mayor, Aldermen, and commonalty of the city of New York." The legislative power is vested in a board of twenty-four aldermen. The executive power is vested in the Mayor and heads of departments appointed by the Mayor, and confirmed by the Board of Aldermen, for a term of six years (except in special cases). The salary of the Mayor is \$12,000, and that of each Alderman \$4,000 per annum. The Finance Department is under the direction of the Comptroller, who receives

a salary of \$10,000 per annum. The City Chamberlain receives a salary of \$30,000, out of which he pays all the expenses of his office.

The Health Department is under the direction of a Board of Health, which has charge of all sanitary matters except the cleaning of streets. The expense of the Fire Department, which is very efficient, is about \$1,500,000 annually. The Building Department supervises the erection of new buildings and additions to old structures within the city limits.

The Police Department is governed by a Board of four Commissioners, who receive \$6,000 a year each, excepting the President of the Board, who is selected by themselves from themselves, and receives \$8,000. Patrolmen receive \$1,000 a year; roundsmen, \$1,200; sergeants, \$1,500, and captains, \$2,000. The city has a large number of public markets under the general direction of a superintendent. Besides the General Post-Office, there are 19 sub-stations and over 1,000 lamp-post boxes, from which collections are made seven times daily (Sundays excepted). Each police court has connected with it a prison, viz.: The Tombs, or City Prison, in Centre Street; Essex Market, in Essex Street; Jefferson Market, Sixth Avenue and West Tenth Street; Yorkville, Fifty-seventh Street; Harlem, 125th Street. Ludlow Street Jail is used for prisoners from the Federal and State Courts.

The evening schools supply instruction to about 20,000 children and others who are obliged to work during the day. The College of the City of New York was established in 1847, and until 1866 was known as the New York Free Academy. It is open only to pupils from the public schools who have been in attendance at least one year. The college confers the degrees of B.A., M.A., B.S., and M.S. The buildings are on Lexington Avenue and Twenty-third Street, and valued at \$150,000; they contain a library, natural history cabinet, and scientific apparatus, the whole valued at \$75,000. The annual cost of maintaining the college is about \$150,000. The Normal College for Women is on Sixty-ninth Street, between Lexington and Fourth Avenues. The building is 300 feet long and 125 feet wide, fronting on Fourth Avenue; its cost was \$350,000. There is also a model or training school for practice. Its object is to prepare teachers for the common schools. The cost of maintaining this institution is about \$100,000 per annum. Other institutions of learning are Columbia College, the University of the City of New York, and the medical, law, and theological schools and seminaries. Columbia College, originally King's College, was chartered in 1754. The Corporation of Trinity Church erected the first college building on the church lands

between College Place and the Hudson River. About 1850 the old buildings were surrendered, and the college removed to its present site on Madison and Fourth Avenues, Forty-ninth and Fiftieth Streets. The departments are the Academic, the School of Mines, and the Law School. The University of the City of New York is comprised in the university building on Washington Square, and the Medical College building on East Twenty-sixth Street, opposite Bellevue Hospital. The university was chartered in 1830, and is non-denominational. Instruction in the departments of the arts and sciences is given free of charge.

The regular medical schools or colleges are Bellevue Hospital Medical



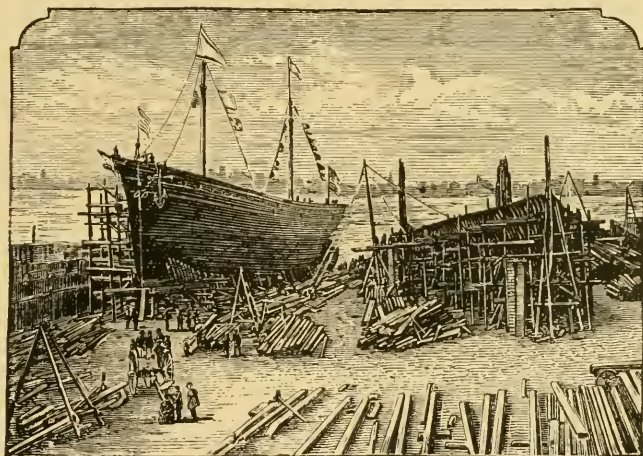
THE GRAND CENTRAL DEPOT.

College, the College of Physicians and Surgeons, and the University Medical College, the second of these being the Medical Department of Columbia College. Bellevue Hospital Medical College is located within the hospital grounds, at the foot of East Twenty-sixth Street. It was founded in 1801, and is under the control of the Commissioners of Public Charities and Corrections. Applicants for admission must be eighteen years of age. The course of study is three years. The fees in all amount to \$185. The college ranks high, and has about 500 students.

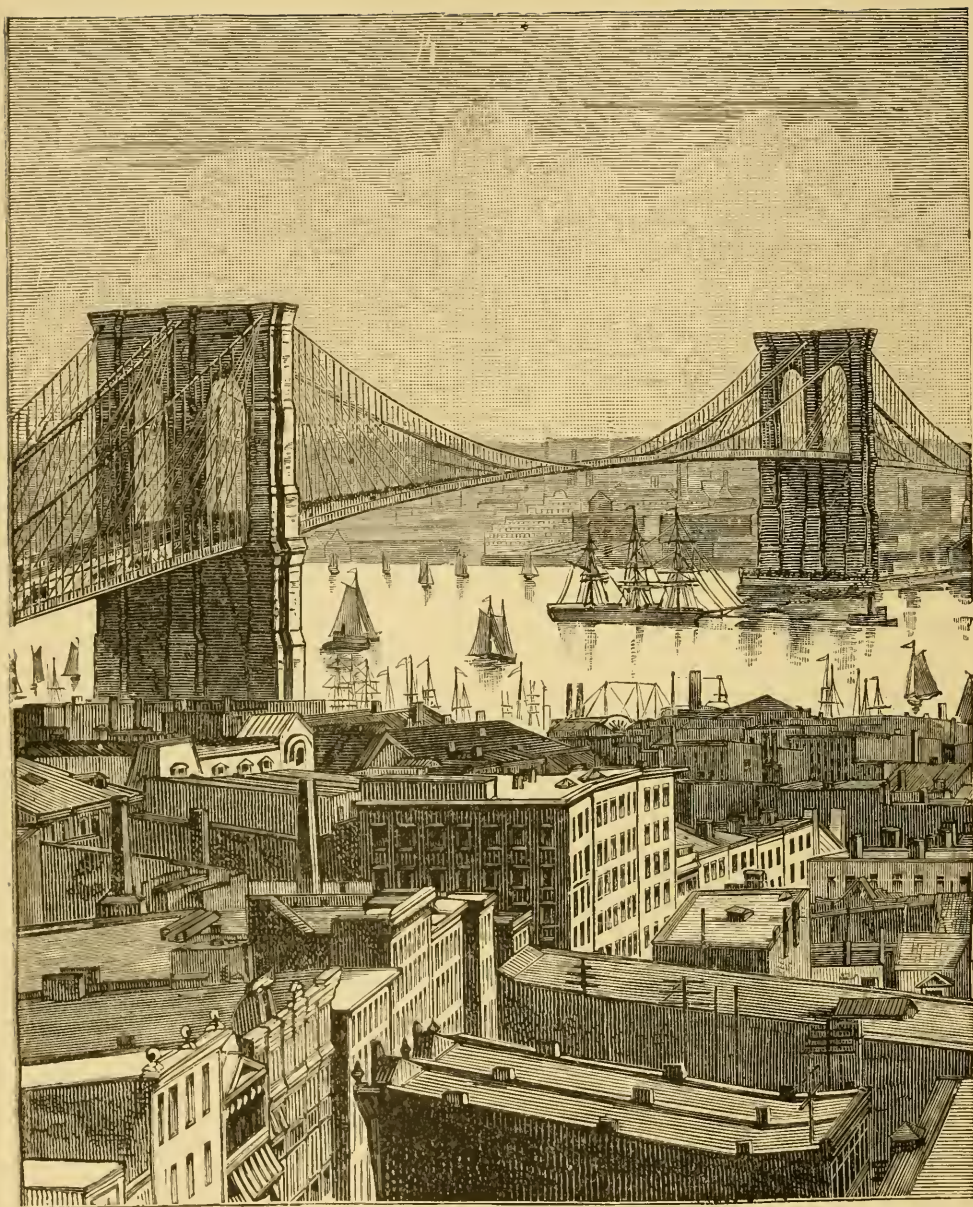
The Protestant Episcopal Theological Seminary is situated in what is known as Chelsea Square, between Ninth and Tenth Avenues and Twentieth

and Twenty-first Streets. It was founded in 1819 and chartered in 1822. The course of study lasts three years. The Union Theological Seminary is on University Place, between Waverley and Clinton Places. It was founded in 1836. The seminary course occupies three years, and the library has 35,000 volumes.

In 1700 there were only 800 dwelling-houses on Manhattan Island, and about 5,000 inhabitants. In 1790 the population was 29,906, and the city extended as far north as the lower end of the City Hall Park. In 1805 the population was 79,770; in 1840, 312,700; in 1880, 1,206,577, and in 1889, 1,500,000.



SHIP-BUILDING.



NEW YORK AND BROOKLYN BRIDGE.

CITY OF BROOKLYN.



BROOKLYN is situated at the west end of Long Island, and is the capital of Kings County, N. Y. There are thirteen lines of steam ferries plying between Brooklyn and New York, and the annex boats connect Jersey City with Fulton Street, Brooklyn, every twenty minutes. The "Brooklyn Bridge," which crosses the East River, and connects Brooklyn with New York, is 125 feet above high water; its total length is 5,989 feet, or about a mile and a quarter; it is 85 feet wide, and its grand stone piers rise 278 feet above high water; their size at high-water line is 140x59 feet. The Bridge cost \$15,000,000, and is a marvel of engineering skill. Occupying comparatively elevated ground, Brooklyn commands a complete view of the adjacent waters and their shores. It is governed by a mayor and board of aldermen. Brooklyn has a very large number of churches (nearly 300 in all), whence it is often called the "City of Churches." It has an immense trade in grain, the warehouses being capable of holding about 12,000,000 bushels. It possesses also a National navy yard, which embraces 45 acres of land, and magnificent docks, including a wet-dock for the largest vessels, the most extensive in the Union. Along the entire river front is an almost unbroken line of storehouses. The Atlantic Dock warehouses of South Brooklyn, opposite Governor's Island, cover a space of 20 acres, and inclose a basin 40 acres in area, and about 25,000 vessels, exclusive of canal boats and lighters, are said to be annually unloaded there. The principal articles are molasses, sugar, grain, coffee, oil, hides, and wool. The annual storage of merchandise in Brooklyn is valued at nearly \$300,000,000. The streets, with the exception of Fulton Street, the principal thoroughfare, are generally straight, have a width of from 60 to 100 feet, and cross each other at right angles. The large number of persons who reside in Brooklyn and do business in New York has caused the city to be termed "the bedroom of New York," the largest part of the city being devoted to private dwelling-houses.

Brooklyn is connected with other parts of Long Island by a number of railroads, besides lines of city horse railroads in every direction; an elevated railroad extends from Fulton Ferry to East New York, a distance of $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles, and connects with the Bridge cars. Several other elevated railroads are in

course of construction. The city is well supplied with pure soft water. Under the act of consolidation the city comprises Brooklyn, Williamsburgh, Greenpoint, Wallabout, Bedford, New Brooklyn, Bushwick, Gowanus, and South Brooklyn, embracing an area of 16,000 acres, or 25 square miles. The city is 8 miles long, with a breadth from 2 to 5 miles; it has a water-front on the East River and Bay of New York, $8\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length. Along the shore, near the end of the Island, is a bluff, which is called the "Brooklyn Heights," on which are many fine residences. A large portion of the city is level.

Williamsburgh, now called Brooklyn, E. D. (eastern district), contains a large number of manufacturing establishments, and has its entire water-front devoted to commercial purposes. Greenpoint also contains large ship-yards and manufactories.

South Brooklyn has an extensive water-front, and contains large wood, coal, stone, and lumber yards, numerous planing-mills, distilleries, breweries, plaster-mills, foundries and machine shops.

Brooklyn has several parks; one of the finest in the county is Prospect Park. It was commenced in 1866, and covers 550 acres, including the Parade Ground. The site is one full of natural beauty, and on which some of the battles of the Revolution were fought. The Park has a fertile soil, magnificent views, fine forest trees, and a large, magnificent lake. It has a nobler effect in sylvan features than Central Park. Upon the Plaza at the main entrance is a bronze statue of Abraham Lincoln and a beautiful fountain. From Lookout Hill can be seen the palatial hotels at Coney Island, which is about seven miles distant, and the Atlantic Ocean. A fine wide boulevard lined with shade trees extends from the Park to the Island, on which are numerous hostleries. The boulevard is under the supervision of the Park Commissioners, is generally in fine condition and well patronized. The Park has 11 miles of walks and 10 miles of roads for driving and riding.

Among the cemeteries which are widely known are Greenwood, Cypress Hills, and the Evergreens.

The more important churches are—St. Ann's, on the Heights, which is a fine Episcopal church. The Church of the Holy Trinity is one of the handsomest churches in the country. St. Paul's has a front of 75 feet, and a depth of 145 feet. The Church of the Pilgrims is built of gray stone, and inserted in the main tower is a piece of the Plymouth Rock; its pastor, Dr. R. S. Storrs, is a noted pulpit orator. Plymouth Church has accommodations for seating 2,800 persons; the late Henry Ward Beecher was its pastor for forty

years, and the desire to hear him preach was so great that many pew-holders refused to give up their seats to strangers for the evening service. A Roman Catholic cathedral is in process of erection on Lafayette Avenue; it will be a very large and imposing structure. The Tabernacle is on Schermerhorn Street; the interior is well arranged for seating a large audience; the plan is a large semicircle, giving the speaker command of the entire building; its pastor is the well-known Rev. T. DeWitt Talmage.

There are nearly 200 private schools and educational institutions in Brooklyn. Among the principal buildings are the City Hall, the Kings County Court-house, the new Hall of Records, the new Post-office, the new Brooklyn Orphan Asylum, the College of St. John the Baptist, the Art building, the Academy of Design, and the Long Island Historical Society. The Academy of Music, on Montague Street, was built in 1860; it contains seats for 2,300 persons. Opposite is the Brooklyn Library; the building was completed in 1867, at a cost of \$227,000. The Kings County Penitentiary is on Nostrand Avenue. The four principal theatres are the Park Theatre, on Fulton Street, opposite the City Hall Park; the Brooklyn Theatre, corner of Johnson and Washington Streets, on the site of one which was destroyed by fire December 6, 1876, causing the death of over 300 persons—the new structure has proper means of exit; the Grand Opera House, on Elm Place; and the Criterion Theatre, on Fulton Avenue near Grand Avenue. The latter was completed in the fall of 1885, and has a very handsome interior. There are twenty-one hospitals, dispensaries, and infirmaries, besides numerous other benevolent institutions.

The first settlement of Brooklyn was in 1636; it was then called "Breuckelen," at which time a few Walloon colonists settled on the spot now known as the Wallabout. English and Dutch settlers followed. In 1667 the town received a charter from the Governor; in 1666 the first church was erected; in 1698 the population was 509—of these, 65 were slaves; in 1776, on the site of the present city, the battle of Long Island was fought, and its neighborhood was one of the principal seats of the Revolutionary War. Brooklyn became a chartered city in 1834, and Williamsburgh became a city in 1851. In 1800 the population of Brooklyn was 3,298; in 1830, 15,292; in 1840, 36,233; in 1850, 96,838; in 1860, after its consolidation with Williamsburgh, the population was 266,661; in 1870 it was 396,099; in 1880, 554,696; and in 1889, it was estimated to be 805,855.

JERSEY CITY.



ERSEY CITY, the county seat of Hudson County, is situated in the State of New Jersey, on the west bank of the Hudson River, opposite New York, of which it is in fact, though in another State, an extension. Large steam ferry-boats connect it with New York; they are lighted with gas and electricity, and travel day and night. In 1802 it contained but thirteen inhabitants, living in a single house. In 1804 the Legislature of the State granted a charter to the "Associates of the Jersey Company," who laid out the place in streets in 1820. It was incorporated as "the City of Jersey;" in 1838 the name was changed to "Jersey City." It is now about 5 miles long and 3 miles wide. Its principal public buildings are the County Court-house, the City Hall, the Jail, and the Market; while the business portion of the city has numerous substantial business structures, yet it is not as imposing as might be expected from its population, but this can very properly be attributed to its close proximity to New York. The city has many handsome residences, many fine school buildings and churches. There are several small public squares; some of them contain fountains, and are adorned with trees. The Morris Canal, which connects the Delaware with the Hudson, terminates here. Numerous lines of railway approach New York at this point; among the principal are the Pennsylvania, the Erie, the Northern New Jersey, the New Jersey Midland, the Reading, the Central of New Jersey, and the New York and Midland. The work of constructing a tunnel under the Hudson between Jersey City and New York has been in slow progress several years.

The city is a part of the New York Customs district, and, therefore, not a port of entry. The immense quantities of coal and iron brought to the city by the canal and railroads create a large business. The city has large manufacturing interests, including extensive glass works, the United States Watch Manufactory, steel works, crucible works, boiler works, zinc works, railroad repair and supply shops, locomotive works, machine shops, foundries, sugar refineries, breweries, medals, car springs, pottery, chains and spikes, planing-mills, soap and candles, articles in copper, saleratus, oils, fireworks, jewelry, drugs, lead pencils, chemicals, etc. Large numbers of animals are

slaughtered in the northern part of the city for the New York market. The city is supplied with water from the Passaic River.

Among the charitable institutions are the City Hospital, the Home for Aged Women, and the Children's Home. The number of churches is 60. The population in 1880 was 120,728, and in 1887 it was estimated at 185,000.

CITY OF NEWARK.



NEWARK is a city and port of entry of New Jersey, and capital of Essex County. It is situated on an elevated plain on the right or west bank of the Passaic River, 10 miles from New York and 4 miles from Newark Bay. Its principal street is over 2 miles long, 120 feet wide, shaded by great elm trees and bordering on three beautiful parks. The population, which has increased very rapidly, was, in 1780, 1,000; in 1870, 105,059; in 1880, 136,400; and in 1889, between 175,000 and 180,000. The amount appropriated for expenditures in one year was \$1,742,912. The College of New Jersey was located in Newark from 1747 to 1755; the Newark Academy was founded in 1792. The town was sacked, plundered, and nearly destroyed by the British in 1777. Newark is a very beautiful and industrious city, and contains 104 churches, an academy, high-school, and 26 public schools. It has many fine public buildings, among which are the City Hall, Court-house, Custom-house and Post-office. Among the prominent societies are the N. J. Historical Society, the Newark Library Association, and the Y. M. C. A. Among the goods manufactured are carriages, india-rubber goods, jewelry, machinery, leather, paper, patent leather, and spool thread; there are also very large breweries, in fact the city is noted for its varied manufactures, numerous industries, and large life and fire insurance companies. The shipping interests are very large, the docks being nearly a mile and a half in length. The total capital and assets belonging to the financial institutions amount to about \$100,000,000. It is the largest city in the State, and contains nearly two hundred miles of streets and nearly fifty miles of sewers. Great quantities of building material are produced from the brown-stone quarries in and near the city. In 1682 Newark was famous for the manufacture of cider. In 1665 the colonies of Hartford and New Haven, Conn., being united in spite of the opposition of the people of Branford, the latter deserted

that part of the country in a body, headed by their pastor, and taking with them their families and household goods. They bought the land on which Newark now stands, from the Hackensack Indians, for £130, 12 blankets, and 12 guns, and there founded their city, laying it out in broad streets. No one was permitted to hold office, or vote, or was a freeman, who did not have membership in the Congregational Church. About four miles from Newark is the beautiful city of Orange, with a population of 15,000. One of the numerous horse railroads connects the two cities.





BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

Philad. July 5 1775

Mr. Strahan,

You are a Member of Parliament,
and one of that Majority which has
doomed my Country to Destruction. —
— You have begun to burn our Towns
and murder our People. — Look upon
your Hands. — They are stained with the
Blood of ^{your} Relations. — You and I were
long Friends: — You are now my En-
emy, — and

I am,

Yours,

B. Franklin

CITY OF PHILADELPHIA.



PHILADELPHIA is the chief city and seaport of Pennsylvania, and the second as to population and importance in the United States.

It is situated on a plain on the west bank of the Delaware River (which separates it from New Jersey), at the mouth of the Schuylkill, which, since 1854, the time of the extension of the boundaries of the city to those

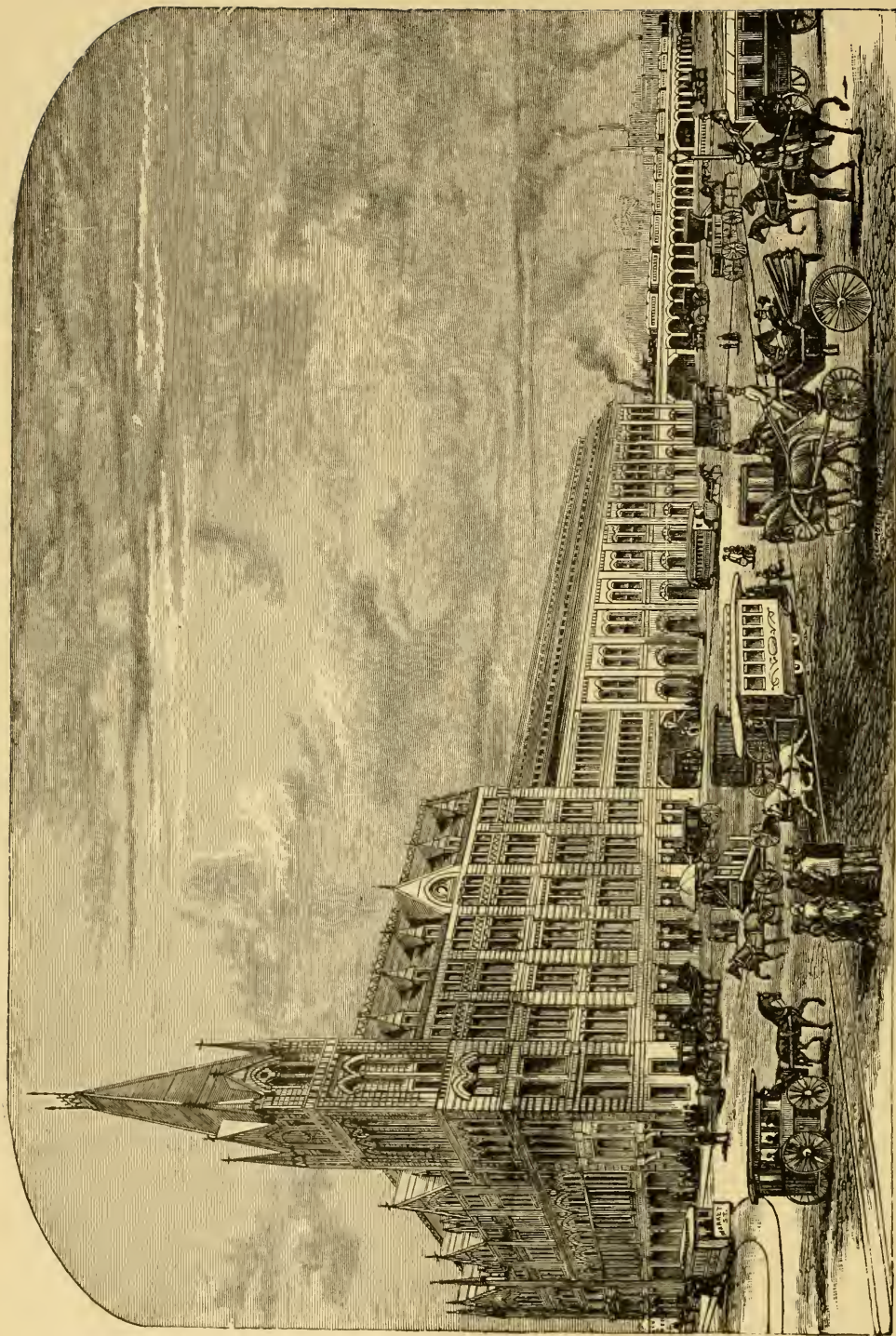
of the county, flows through the city and joins the Delaware. The city between the two rivers is about 3 miles wide, and its water front on the Delaware is 23 miles in extent. It is 96 miles from New York, 135 from Washington, and 96 from the open sea.

Its extreme length is about 23 miles north and south, it averages about $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles wide east and west, and embraces 129 square miles. The city, as founded and planned in 1682 by William Penn, was bounded by Vine and Cedar Streets and the two rivers. That portion which lies west of the Schuylkill is now called West Philadelphia. Penn stated: "I took charge of the Province of

Pennsylvania for the Lord's sake. I wanted to afford an asylum for the good and oppressed of every nation, and to frame a government which might be an example. I desired to show men as good and happy as they could be; and I had kind views to the Indians." With these ends in view he selected its name. The Indian name of its original site was Coaquenaka. In 1682 twenty-three ships arrived containing settlers, who were mostly Friends.



INDEPENDENCE HALL.

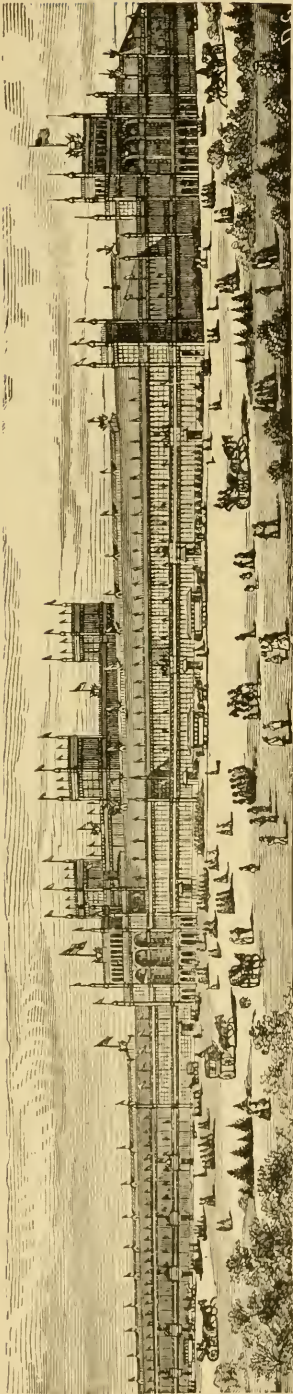


PENNSYLVANIA RAILROAD, BROAD STREET STATION, PHILADELPHIA.

SKETCH OF THE NEW SETTLEMENT.

In 1684 the new settlement numbered over 300 houses and 2,500 population. It grew rapidly by large immigration from Germany and the North of Ireland. Penn returned to London, but revisited the city in 1699, at which period the population was 4,500. The city was incorporated in 1701, after which Penn took his final departure. In 1704, at the time of the war of England with France and Spain, the Governor of the Province created a militia. This was very obnoxious to the Friends, and in order to enlist them in its favor the Governor used stratagem. He sent a messenger from Newcastle on the Fair Day in 1706, with the news that the enemy's ships were in the river. The Governor, with drawn sword and on horseback, urged the people to arm for the defence of the city. Great excitement prevailed; the people hid their valuables and fled, but the Quakers were not disturbed, and could neither be frightened nor coaxed to take an interest in the movement. When the fraud was finally discovered the Governor was displaced.

In 1719 was here printed the first American newspaper, the *Weekly Mercury*. The *Gazette* was established in 1728, and afterward edited by Benjamin Franklin, who, by the publication of his "Plain Truth," in 1747, was the first to rouse a military spirit of enthusiasm among the people, which culminated in a military force of 10,000 men. In 1755 a militia bill was passed, and Franklin became Colonel of the City Regiment. Philadelphia finally became very prominent from 1765 to 1774 in resisting British aggression. At Carpenters' Hall, September 5, 1774, was held the first Continental Congress; the second was held in the State House, May 10, 1775. It was here that Colonel George Washington, of Virginia, on June 15, 1775, was appointed General and Commander-in-Chief of the United States Army. On July 4th the Declaration of Independence was adopted in the State House, and proclaimed July 8, 1776. The city was in possession of the British from September, 1777, to June, 1778; at that time the population of the city was 21,767. The battle of Germantown, of Revolutionary fame, was fought October 4, 1777. The city expended much treasure in men and money in the cause of the Union. Except the period of the British occupation, the city was the capital of Pennsylvania until 1799, and the Government of the Union was conducted here from 1790 to 1800. It was the first city in America until surpassed by New York. In 1812 the city was visited by yellow fever; in the same year the steam water-works at Fairmount Park were commenced.



CENTENNIAL EXPOSITION—MAIN EXHIBITION BUILDING.

In 1832 the Asiatic cholera caused nearly 1,000 deaths. In 1837 specie payment was suspended, and the failure of the Bank of the United States in 1839 caused great depression in commerce. Serious riots disturbed the city at different times from 1834 to 1844. The Philadelphia, Germantown & Norristown Railroad was completed in 1832. Gas was introduced in 1836, and the first telegraph lines were established in 1846. The great Sanitary Fair held in Logan Square in 1864 netted over \$1,000,000.

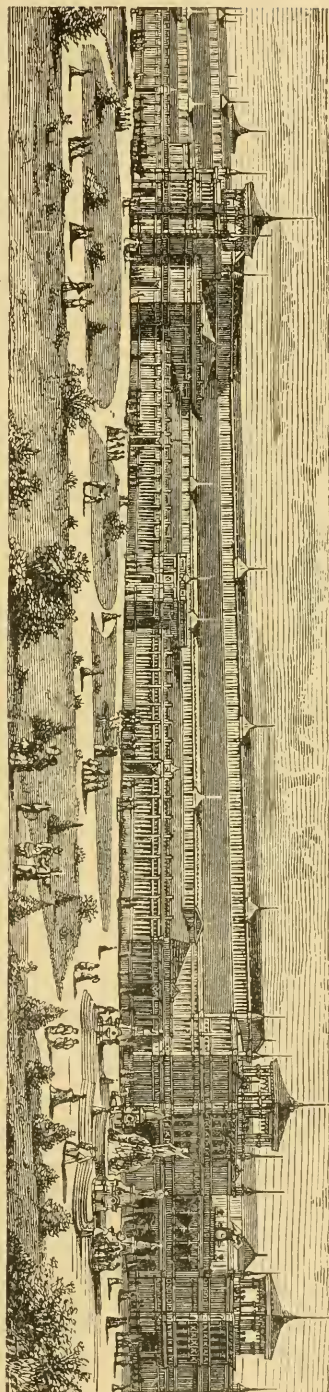
THE CENTENNIAL EXHIBITION

was opened in Fairmount Park, May 10, 1876, 100 years after the Declaration of Independence, on a magnificent scale, covering 236 acres. The cost of the five principal buildings was \$4,500,000. The enclosure contained 200 separate buildings. The Main Building covered no less than 20 acres, and the roof was 70 feet high. It was 1,876 feet long, 464 feet wide, with projecting wings in the centre 416 feet long. Space was apportioned as follows, in square feet: Argentine Republic, 2,861; Austria-Hungary, 24,727; Belgium, 15,598; Brazil, 6,899; Canada, 24,118; Chili, 3,244; China, 6,628; France, 45,460; Germany, 29,629; Great Britain and Ireland, 54,155; India and British Colonies, 24,193; Hawaiian Islands, 1,575; Italy, 8,943; Japan, 17,831; Luxembourg, 247; Mexico, 6,567; Netherlands, 15,948; Norway, 6,959; Orange Free State, 1,058; Peru, 1,462; Spain and Colonies, 11,253; Sweden, 17,799; Switzerland, 6,693; Tunis, 2,015; Turkey, 3,347; United States, 136,684.

This gives a fair idea of the magnitude of the main building. Within this vast space the

wealth, power, industries, and greatness of the nations were exhibited to millions of admiring visitors. The exhibition was opened every day, except Sundays, for six months; the number of admissions was nearly 10,000,000, of which nearly 8,000,000 paid the regular fee of 50 cents, and nearly 1,000,000 paid the special rate of 25 cents. A large building was devoted to the progress of modern education. The Women's Pavilion, designed to receive the products of woman's ingenuity, covered an acre of ground. The Memorial Hall, or Art Building, remains as a permanent representative of the exhibition. The building is 365 feet long by 210 feet wide, and 59 feet high. It is made of granite, glass, and iron. It is a beautiful structure. Machinery Hall covered 13 acres, and was the next in size to the main building. The United States building was 504 feet by 300, and the operations of the Government service were exhibited in this great building. Horticultural Hall, which was intended to be permanent, was built of iron and glass, by the city of Philadelphia. Its size is 383 feet by 193 feet and 72 feet in height, and covers 820 by 540 feet of ground. Several nations had pavilions for their commissioners and others. There were 26 buildings representing as many States. Many private exhibitors and companies had special buildings of their own. Among them were the Telegraph Building, the Transportation Building, the Bankers' Building, the American Kindergarten, the Bible Building, and others. The ingenuity of man was supplemented by bees making honey in the midst of all the crowd.

CENTENNIAL EXPOSITION—MACHINERY HALL.



HISTORICAL AND NOTED BUILDINGS.

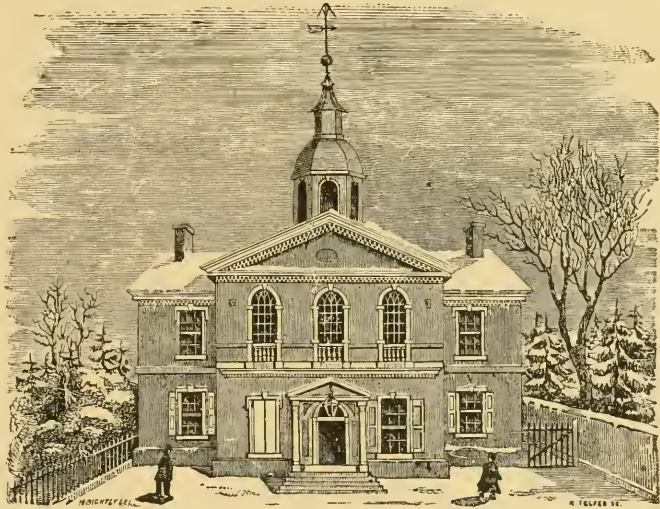
Among the places of historical interest in Philadelphia are—Carpenters' Hall, between Third and Fourth Streets, on Chestnut Street; the legendary treaty ground at Shackamaxon, with a monument marking the site of the elm tree, erected in 1827; the Germantown battle-ground, and Fort Mifflin, on the site of the mud fort on the west bank of the Delaware; the old London Coffee-House on the southwest corner of Front and Market, and Independence Hall, or the old State House, on Chesnut, between Fifth and Sixth Streets, built in 1732-35. It was in this building that the second Continental Congress adopted the Declaration of Independence, and where, July 8, 1776, the famous Liberty bell fulfilled the great mission inscribed on it in the words of the Scriptures: "Proclaim liberty throughout all the land to all the inhabitants thereof" (Lev. xxv. 10). In one of the rooms of this building is the National Museum, filled with relics of the Colonial and Revolutionary history of our country. In the adjoining hall Congress met for ten years, and Presidents Adams and Jefferson were inaugurated. At the southwest corner of Seventh and Market is the house in which Jefferson wrote the Declaration of Independence. The new County Court House and City Hall is a magnificent structure, probably the largest and finest in the country. It is situated at the intersection of Broad and Market Streets. It covers nearly $4\frac{1}{2}$ acres, exclusive of the courtyard. The new United States Post-Office is one of the finest in America, and is located on Chestnut, Ninth, and Market Streets. The Custom-House and Mint are among the prominent buildings of the city. The Masonic Temple, at the corner of Broad and Filbert Streets, is said to be the finest Masonic structure in the world. It cost \$1,300,000, and is in the Norman style. The Government arsenals, Navy Yard, Naval Asylum, and Naval Hospital are situated at Bridesburgh and Gray's Ferry Road.

PARKS AND PLACES OF INTEREST.

Fairmount Park is nearly 11 miles long and 2 miles wide, and is one of the finest parks in America, covering, 2,740 acres. Its fine old trees, broad expanses of turf, varied surface, and great extent, with the Schuylkill River flowing by its side, and the Wissahickon, flowing through a picturesque rocky valley clothed with the trees, shrubs, and wild vines of virgin nature, through dark dells, broken by numerous waterfalls, give it a different character from that of other parks.

Philadelphia has a number of public squares, five of which were laid out when the city was founded. Among the daily papers published in Philadelphia twelve have an aggregate circulation of 350,000, and the weeklies have a still larger circulation. The city contains over 2,000 public schools; evening schools are conducted during the autumn and winter months. The Girard College is one of the finest architectural buildings in the country. The University of Pennsylvania is the outgrowth of the College of Philadelphia, founded through the influence of Dr. Benjamin Franklin and others. There are many other fine colleges in Philadelphia, including two dental colleges; also, the Academy of Natural Sciences, which is strictly scientific, and

has a library of 30,000 volumes and fine collections. There are also the Wagner Institute and Franklin Institute. The American Philosophical Society was founded in 1763. There are many theological colleges. The Byzantine Order has a superb structure on the west side of Broad Street devoted to art. It contains a



CARPENTERS' HALL.

copious collection of sculptures and paintings. It was organized in 1803, and is the oldest academy of art in the country. There is also a School of Design for Women, conducted on a liberal scale, and founded in 1850. There are numerous libraries in Philadelphia, the Apprentices' being free. The Historical Library of Pennsylvania is very large and valuable. The city has numerous charitable institutions of every kind, including 24 hospitals, 12 dispensaries, 20 asylums, and homes of various kinds. The Bank of North America is the oldest in the country. Many of the bank buildings have great architectural beauty and merit. On Chestnut Street are located some of the best hotels, the *Times*, *Ledger* building, many fine business structures, the Mint, and several handsome churches. On this street is conducted the finest retail trade of the city. In the magnificence of its

public and private buildings Philadelphia is second only to New York and Washington.

FINANCIAL INSTITUTIONS—MANUFACTURES—COMMERCE.

The great financial centre is the neighborhood of Third Street, the latter being considered the Wall Street of Philadelphia. It is situated in the lower portion of the city. In this section can be found the great banking and insurance companies, the courts, and the Custom-House. The city is famous for its building and loan associations, of which there are about seven hundred, mostly composed of tradespeople. Philadelphia leads every other city in the Union in the number of its manufacturing establishments, also in the number of persons employed, in the amount of capital invested, the value of the material used, and the variety of articles manufactured. It is second to New York only in the value of the products. The banks of the river are devoted to commerce, and manufacturing establishments are to be found in all directions. Nearly 13,000 manufacturing establishments give employment to about 250,000 hands; the capital invested in these establishments amounts to over \$250,000,000; they produce about \$500,000,000 annually. The commerce of the city is of comparatively recent growth, and is of great importance. In 1880 the imports amounted to \$38,933,832, and exports, \$50,685,838; the exports included provisions, breadstuffs, tallow, petroleum, naphtha, tobacco, and benzine. The duties received in 1880 were \$12,726,376.80. In the same year 16,886 male immigrants arrived, and 13,078 females. The coal trade of the city is simply enormous, vast quantities being brought here for shipment. The lumber trade is very extensive, the supplies coming from the northern part of the State, Virginia, and North and South Carolina. Philadelphia is one of the four great centres of the book trade; the others being New York, Boston, and Chicago. Publishing is conducted on a very extensive scale. It rivals any city in the Union in the manufacture of Family Bibles. The oysters of the Chesapeake and of the New Jersey coast form an important branch of trade. An extensive trade is done in Florida oranges, which are shipped in vast quantities to Philadelphia every year. It is also one of the principal markets for peaches and other fruit. The manufacturing facilities of the city are very extensive. Among these may be mentioned the coal and iron fields in close proximity, and the great water-power which abounds in the vicinity. Iron ship building is carried on at the Delaware and at Chester. The textile industries employ 75,000 persons, and produce about

\$90,000,000, distributed as follows: Carpets, \$19,000,000; hosiery, \$16,500,000; worsted and woolen yarns, \$11,000,000; silk and mixed goods, \$6,000,000; cotton goods, \$19,000,000; woolen and mixed fabrics, \$18,500,000. The iron and steel production amounts to \$30,000,000; machinery, \$10,000,000; sugar, \$20,000,000; building materials, \$10,000,000. Boots and shoes, chemicals, hardware, tools, furniture, gold and silverware are among the other important industries. The Customs district includes the city of Camden, N. J., and all the shores of the Delaware in Pennsylvania and tributaries. There are many regular lines of steamers to Southern and various coastwise ports, a line to Havana and New Orleans, a line to Liverpool, and another to Antwerp.

GROWTH AND GOVERNMENT OF THE CITY.

The city has about 800 miles of paved streets. The streets intersect at right angles, and the cross-streets, running east and west, are in numerical order from the Delaware River, commencing with Front, First, Second, Third, etc. In numbering the houses 100 numbers are allotted to each block. In going north or south Market Street is the point where the enumeration begins. The city is exceedingly healthy, has an abundance of water and good drainage, and its growth is extraordinary. Its population in 1683 was 500; in 1777, 23,734; in 1800, 70,287; in 1850, 300,365; in 1860, after the extension of the city, 508,034; 1870, 674,022; 1889, 846,980; 1886, 1,100,000. The annual city expenditures are about \$15,000,000. Philadelphia contains over 160,000 dwelling-houses, all of solid material. The great extent of territory is such that the necessity of tenement-houses has not existed as in other cities; it is therefore pre-eminently a city of homes, as on the average a house contains only five persons. The city has over 30 markets, which furnish good food in great abundance. The water-works are controlled by the city, and the supply is obtained from the Delaware and the Schuylkill. Philadelphia contains 70 public fountains, 61 of which were erected by the Philadelphia Fountain Society. There are over 150 miles of sewers. The Fire and Police Departments are very efficient.

The municipal government consists of the Mayor and Recorder, a Select and Common Council. The Mayor, elected for three years, has control of the police, and the right to approve or veto the ordinances of the City Councils. The Select Council consists of 31 members, representing the 31 Wards, elected by the people for three years; the Common Council contains

nearly 100 members, each representing 2,000 tax-payers, elected for two years. The management of the city is controlled by councils, and the different departments, trusts, and commissions. The Controller, Treasurer, Solicitor, Collector of Taxes, and Commissioners are elected by the people. Philadelphia is represented in the State Legislature by 8 Senators and 38 Assemblymen, and in Congress by 5 members. The United States Circuit and District Courts for Eastern Pennsylvania, and terms of the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania are held in Philadelphia. There are four Common Pleas Courts, Courts of Oyer and Terminer, and of Quarter Sessions, and an Orphans' Court.

RELIGIOUS INSTITUTIONS.

There are in Philadelphia about 650 religious congregations. The church having the greatest amount of historical interest is probably Christ Church, which occupies the site of a frame building, erected in 1695, on Second Street, above Market. This, after many enlargements, finally gave place to the present noble structure, a portion of which was finished in 1731, and the whole finally completed in 1754. Its chime of bells, which was cast in London, was the first used in the United States. Benjamin Franklin, Washington, and Adams worshipped in this church, and it was there that John Penn was buried. Some of the communion plate still in use was presented by Queen Anne. In the crypt of the school-house lie the remains of Robert Morris and Bishop White of Revolutionary fame: In the burying-ground belonging to the church at Fifth and Arch Streets lie the remains of Peyton Randolph, President of the first Continental Congress; Major-General Charles Lee, Benjamin Franklin, and Deborah, his wife. St. Peter's Church-yard contains the remains of Commodore Stephen Decatur. David Rittenhouse, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, sleeps in the church-yard of the old Pine Street Presbyterian Church. The oldest church in the city, except Christ Church, is the Gloria Dei, dedicated in 1700; originally connected with the Lutheran Church in Sweden, but for 50 years past with the Protestant Episcopal Church. Conspicuous for architectural beauty may be mentioned the Roman Catholic Cathedral of St. Peter and St. Paul, Logan Square; St. Mark's Protestant Episcopal Church, Locust Street; the West Arch Street Presbyterian Church; the Beth-Eden Baptist Church, Broad Street; the Arch Street Methodist Church, and the Rodef Sholem Syna-

gogue. The whole number of cemeteries and burying-grounds in Philadelphia is 45. The first is Laurel Hill, picturesquely beautiful.

CLUBS—RAILROADS—BRIDGES, ETC.

There are thirteen bridges across the Schuylkill, seven of which are built of solid material and six of wood. The Callowhill Street Bridge, with the approaches, is 2,730 feet long; it is 50 feet above tide-water, and is a work of great engineering skill. The river span is 348 feet, and a span which is thrown over the Pennsylvania Railroad is 140 feet. This bridge has an upper and a lower passage-way, the upper being 32 feet higher than the lower one. The South Street Bridge is 2,419 feet long. The handsomest bridge is the Girard. It is 1,000 feet long, 100 feet wide, and has five spans; it cost \$1,404,445. Small steamboats run on the Schuylkill, and seven ferries connect the city with points in New Jersey.

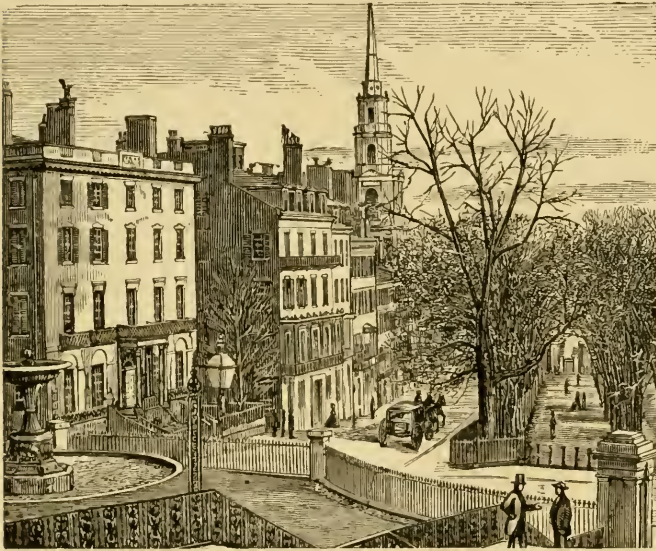
Philadelphia contains five armories. Clubs of various descriptions, social and sporting, are numerous. Among the social clubs the Philadelphia, Union League, and Reform Clubs are conspicuous. The Union League House has the finest building; it is in the French renaissance style. Amusement and recreation have a superb temple in the American Academy of Music, Broad and Locust Streets, elegantly fitted within, with a seating capacity for 2,900. The leading theatres are the Walnut, Arch and Chestnut. The Young Men's Christian Association has a building of imposing architecture at Fifteenth and Chestnut Streets.

In 1889 there were twenty lines of horse-cars, with an invested capital of over \$13,000,000, the principal railroads connecting with the city being the Pennsylvania, the Bound Brook, the Philadelphia & Erie, the Reading & North Pennsylvania, the Philadelphia, Wilmington & Baltimore.

CITY OF BOSTON.



BOSTON is the great metropolis of New England, the capital of Massachusetts, and of our American cities second to New York in commerce. It is 44 miles northeast of Providence, and 232 miles from New York. It is situated at the mouth of the Charles River, on the western extremity of Massachusetts Bay. The spot was first visited by Europeans in 1621. In 1625 William Blackstone, an English clergyman,



PARK STREET, BOSTON.

settled on Beacon Hill. In 1629 Charles I. granted a charter constituting "the Governor and Company of the Massachusetts Bay in New England," and twelve men of extensive fortune, among whom were John Winthrop and Richard Saltonstall, entered Boston June 17, 1630. The city, which was incorporated in 1822, now contains nearly

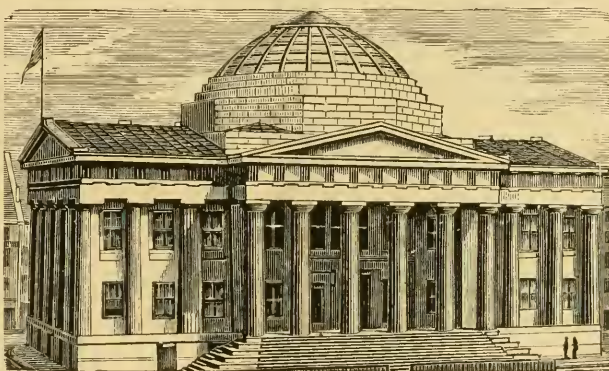
400 miles of streets, which cost over \$36,000,000. There are many bridges connecting Boston with the suburbs. The milldam, which cost \$700,000, is a continuation of Beacon Street, and once inclosed 600 acres of "flats" which were covered by the tide; these have since been filled in, and that section now contains some of the finest dwellings and churches in Boston. The scenery in the suburbs of Boston is very beautiful, and many of the private residences are very elegant.

PLACES OF HISTORICAL INTEREST.

Among the buildings remarkable for their historical interest is Christ church, the oldest church in the city, and the one from the steeple of which,

in the Revolutionary War, Paul Revere's signal was hung out by Captain John Pulling, merchant, of Boston. The Rev. Mather Byles, Jr., who was rector of this church during the Revolution, left town on account of his attachment to the royal cause. The old South church, built in 1730, is one of the most famous in the country. In this building Joseph Warren delivered his memorable oration on the anniversary of the "Boston Massacre," March 5, 1776. Here the patriots met to discuss the tax on tea. In 1775 the building was "desecrated" by British soldiers, who tore out its galleries, filled it with earth, and used it as a place for cavalry drill. The most famous, perhaps, is Faneuil Hall, well known as the "Cradle of Liberty," from the fact that, during the period preceding the Revolution, it was used for public gatherings at which the patriotic spirit of the colonists was stirred by the eloquence of the great patriots. Faneuil Hall was built in 1742, destroyed by fire in 1761, and rebuilt in 1762. Before 1822 all town meetings were held in this famous hall.

The Common, which covers 48 acres, contains trees over 200 years old. Many of the avenues of the city contain fine old



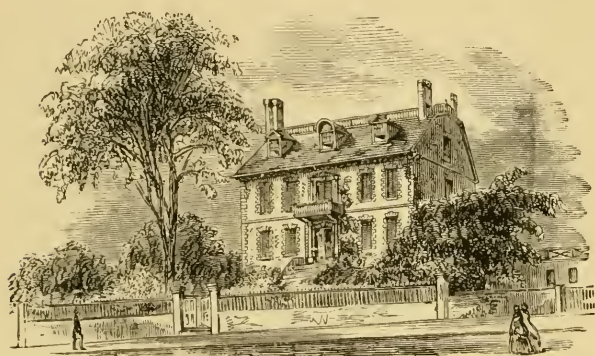
CUSTOM-HOUSE, BOSTON.

English elms, which are not surpassed by any in the United States. The Common was dedicated to the use of the public by the founders of the city. The "Public Garden" is an extension of the Common, containing nearly 25 acres, separated from the Common only by a street. It is a botanical garden, containing a small lake, a conservatory, and numerous fine statues. The city has over twenty smaller parks. Commonwealth Avenue is a fine boulevard, 250 feet wide and nearly two miles long; in the centre are double rows of trees, and walks through grassplots, shrubbery, flowers, etc.

The city has, in public places, statues of Charles Sumner, Josiah Quincy, Governor Winthrop, Benjamin Franklin, Edward Everett, Horace Mann, Alexander Hamilton, Daniel Webster, Christopher Columbus, George Washington, Governor Andrew, and Samuel Adams. Besides these there is in Park Square a group representing the emancipation of slaves, and on the

Common another to the memory of the National soldiers who died in the War of the Rebellion.

The waters of Lake Cochituate, distant 20 miles, have since 1848 been conveyed by a brick conduit into the grand reservoir of Brookline, and thence been carried into the subordinate reservoirs respectively of the different sections of the city. The annexation of Charlestown brought with it the waters of Mystic Lake. Boston, as the centre—social, political, and commercial—of the best educated and most intelligent State in the Union, is pre-eminent throughout the Republic in literature and science. Its trade, likewise, is marvellous; it is, in fact, more marvellous, in proportion to physical facilities, than even that of New York; for while the latter city, with the lakes on the one side and the ocean on the other, and with the Hudson as a link between



THE HANCOCK HOUSE, BOSTON.

them, drains regions of vast extent and singular fertility, Boston, to say nothing of rugged soil and ungenial climate, is cut off from the interior, such as it is, by the entire want of inland waters. But what New York has so largely inherited from nature, Boston has in some measure created for itself. By eight

great systems of railway it reaches, besides the coasts to the north and south, the St. Lawrence and the lakes, the Hudson and the Mississippi; while it virtually connects those channels of communication with Europe and its network of iron roads. In several departments of maritime traffic, such as the coasting intercourse and the trade with Russia, India, and China, Boston possesses exceptional advantages.

COMMERCE AND MANUFACTURES.

Its harbor is open at all seasons, and its deep water front affords accommodation for loading and unloading vessels without delay. It affords anchorage for over 500 vessels of the largest class. In the harbor are more than fifty beautiful islands. The principal entrance to the harbor is very narrow; it is between Castle and Governor's Islands, and is well defended by Fort Independence and Fort Warren. There are stationary elevators under which

steamers can be loaded. Boston has made great progress in competing for the export trade, and the opening of the "through business," which first originated in Boston, has done much for her shipping interests. Boston claims to be the shortest and cheapest line between the great Northwest and Europe. In extent of imports Boston ranks next to New York, and third city in the United States in the value of foreign commerce—New York being first and New Orleans second. The total value of the commerce in Boston in one year was \$87,055,255. Over 1,000 vessels belong to the port, with an aggregate tonnage of nearly 400,000. The principal industries are 45 book-publishing establishments, over 100 printing houses, 55 cabinet-ware factories about 35 book-binderies, 40 establishments for the manufacture of machinery, 33 hat and cap factories, 30 establishments for the manufacture of watches. It is a centre of the boot and shoe trade, the leather trade, and of the trade in foreign and domestic dry-goods. The other manufactures of the city are many and varied, including—besides ship-building, sugar refining, and leather dressing—clothing, jewelry, chemicals, brass and iron castings, cars, carriages, pianos, upholstery, glass, organs, melodeons, etc., etc. The business of the city is promoted by 61 national banks—more than any other city in the Union has—with a capital of more than \$57,000,000. Thirty of these have cash capitals of \$1,000,000 or more each.

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS—GROWTH OF BOSTON, ETC.

The first "meeting-house" was erected near the head of State Street, 1632. John Cotton was one of its pastors. The city contains now over 200 churches. Free schools, open to all, were established in the United States first in Boston 250 years ago, and the excellence of the system of public instruction there has been so great that many other cities have taken its schools for patterns. The university at Cambridge properly belongs to the Boston school system, for it was founded by the men who settled Boston, and was intended for the education of the youth of the city and surrounding country. Indeed, "Newe Town," as Cambridge was first called, was intended for the capital of the commonwealth. Harvard College was founded in 1638, and for two generations was the only college in New England. The public Latin School in Boston was founded in 1635, the Institute of Technology in 1861, Boston College in 1863, Boston University in 1869. There are more than 200 public schools in the city. Private schools abound. The chief libraries are the Public, with 459,031 volumes, and 115,000 pamphlets, etc.,

distributing 1,500,000 volumes a year; the Athenæum, 125,000 volumes, circulating 75,000 volumes a year; the Historical Society's library, containing 75,000 books and pamphlets, many of them being among the rarest of publications; the State Library, with 50,000 volumes; the Social Law Library, with 16,000 law books; the library of the Historic-Genealogical Society, 75,000 books and pamphlets; the General Theological Library, with 15,000 volumes.

The old State House is situated at the head of State Street. It was on this spot that the old Town House was built in 1763, it was in front of this building that the "Boston Massacre" occurred, at the time of the excitement caused by the Stamp Act. The Declaration of Independence was read from the balcony of this building.

On a peninsula to the north of East Boston, rises Bunker's Hill, so famous in the war of independence; while the Dorchester Heights, little less famous, occupy the centre of South Boston; and, lastly, the peninsula of Old Boston seems to have originally taken the name of Tremont, from its three mounts or hillocks.

Boston has many public buildings worthy of notice. Among those that are remarkable for architectural beauty or grandeur are the United States Post-office, on Post-office Square, Trinity church, the Museum of Fine Arts, the Hotel Vendôme, the Cathedral of the Holy Cross, the State House, the City Hall, the English High and Latin School on Warren Avenue, and the new "Old South Church." The English High and Latin School was begun in 1877, and the portion to be used for school purposes cost more than \$400,000. The remainder is used by officers of the school board. The entire edifice is one of the largest for educational purposes in America.

Boston's original owner, John Blackstone, sold out his right and title, in 1635, for £30. With a site so well chosen and, doubtless, also through the industry and enterprise of its Puritan occupiers, the new town increased so steadily in wealth and population, that in less than a century and a half it became the foremost champion of colonial independence. Since then it has overleaped its natural limits, swarming off, as it were, into an island toward the northeast, and into the mainland on the southeast, and consists of Old, East, and South Boston; Roxbury, annexed in 1868; Dorchester, annexed in 1870; and Charlestown, Brighton, and West Roxbury, annexed in 1873; which are connected by bridges. An immense dam, called the Western Avenue, connects the whole with the inner side of the harbor. All the divisions of the city are of an uneven surface; undulation, in fact, is a character-

istic of the entire neighborhood—continent, islands, and peninsulas alike. The inhabitants are essentially of the old British type, as befits the descendants of the “Pilgrim Fathers.”

In 1880 the 250th anniversary of the settlement of Boston was celebrated. Boston was a town for 192 years. In 1700 the population was only about 7,000; in 1790, 18,000; in 1830, 61,000; in 1870, 250,000; in 1880, 363,968; in 1889, 410,000. If we add to this the population of the City of Cambridge, which in 1889 was 70,000, it brings the population up to 480,000. The area of the city (1889) was 31 square miles.



BOSTON PASSENGER STATION OF THE OLD COLONY RAILROAD.

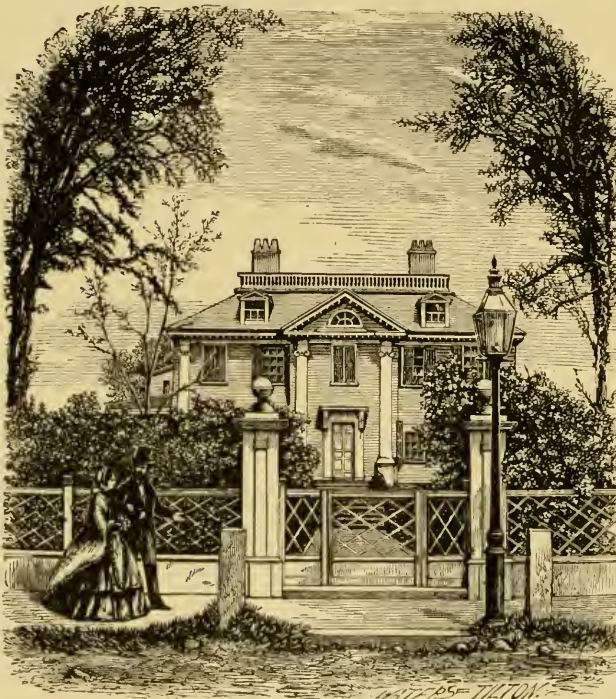
THE CITY OF CAMBRIDGE.



CAMBRIDGE is three miles northwest of Boston, situated on the west of the Charles River, which separates it from Boston, and is one of the county seats of Middlesex County. It is practically a part of Boston, as Allegheny is of Pittsburgh or Brooklyn is of New York.

Here, in 1638, within eighteen years after the landing of the Pilgrim

Fathers, was founded Harvard University by the Rev. John Harvard, who bequeathed it a legacy of about \$4,000, and which has gradually been endowed to the amount of \$1,000,000. It is the oldest institution of the kind in America. In addition to the collegiate department proper, the University includes a theological, law, scientific, and medical school, and a department for such as wish to prepare themselves for business avocations without going through a classical



LONGFELLOW'S RESIDENCE, CAMBRIDGE.

course. Cambridge is rapidly advancing. The population in 1830 was 6,072; that of 1870 was 39,634; 1880, 52,669; 1889, 70,000. The city consists of North, East, Cambridgeport, and Old Cambridge. It covers an area of $5\frac{1}{2}$ square miles. It is beautifully laid out in fine broad avenues with shade trees. It was under one of these trees that Washington took command of the Revolutionary forces in 1775. The house in which Longfellow the poet lived was formerly occupied by Washington. The College buildings occupy fourteen acres and are situated in Old Cambridge. They are shaded by fine old elm trees.

Among the conspicuous buildings near the College are the Harvard Law School; the Lawrence Scientific School; the Museum of Comparative Zoology, founded by Louis Agassiz; the Observatory, and Memorial Hall, which is 310 feet by 115, with a tower 200 feet high, erected to the memory of Harvard graduates and students who lost their lives in the service of their country during the Civil War. This is conceded to be the grandest College Hall in the world. It contains three apartments—a memorial vestibule, a dining-hall which seats 1,000 persons, and the Sanders theatre for large academic assemblages. A fine granite monument, erected by the city in honor of the soldiers who lost their lives in the Rebellion, stands near the college.

Mount Auburn is one of the finest cemeteries in the country. It is laid out in a picturesque manner and occupies 125 acres of hill and valley. It was dedicated in 1831, and is the oldest of the beautiful burying-places of America.

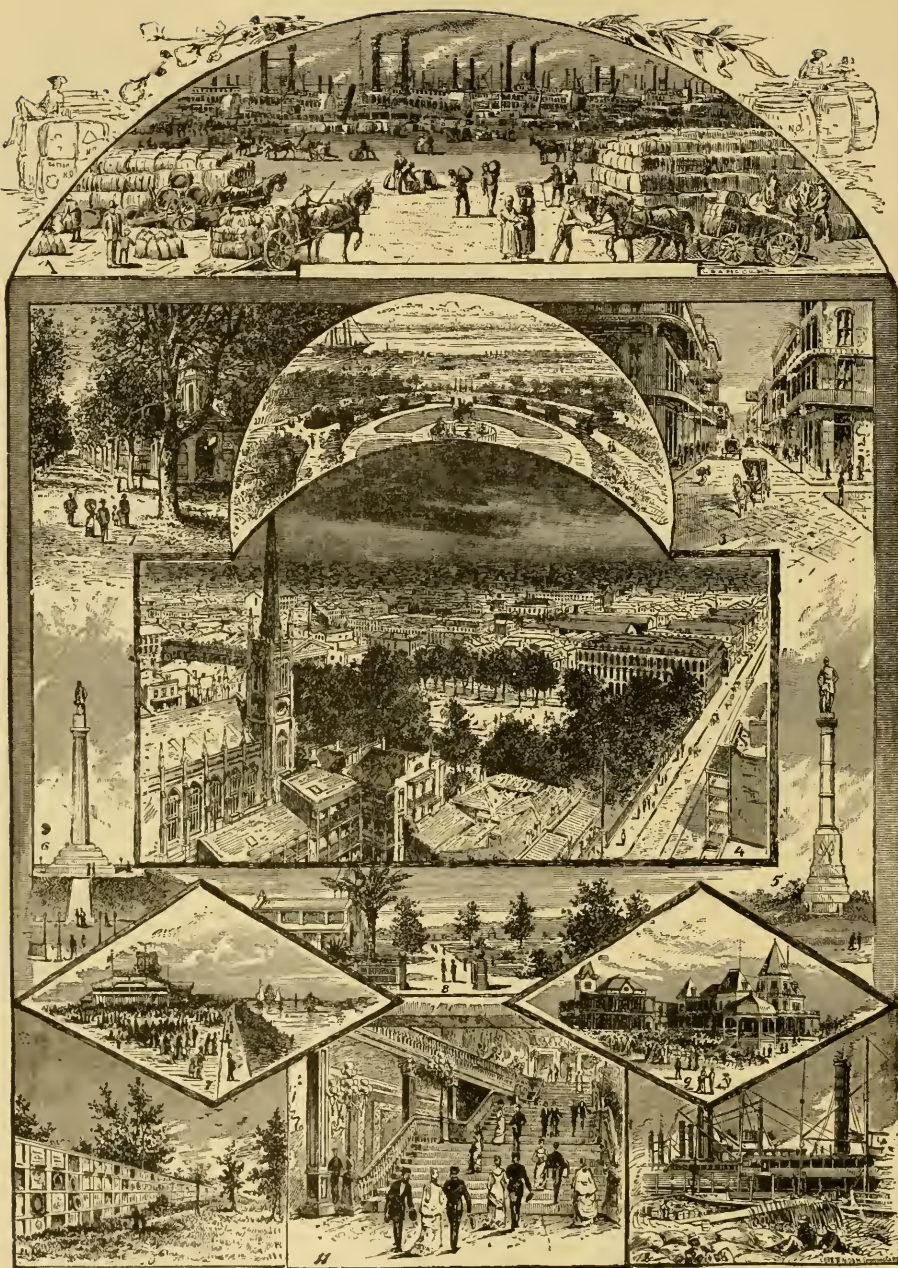
Cambridge is not much of a business centre, but is, to a great extent, a home for the people of Boston. Among its industries may be mentioned the manufacture of steam-engines, locomotives, cabinet-ware, chemicals, biscuit, brushes, candles, soap, chairs, carriages, glass, marble, books, etc., etc. The University printing-office is located here, and the Riverside Press; the former is the oldest printing establishment in the Union.

Bridges over Charles River connect Cambridge with Boston, Brighton, and Brookline. Horse railroads connect with all adjacent towns, and the Boston and Lowell and the Fitchburg railroads pass through East Cambridge.

Cambridge has a large number of fine public schools, thirty-two churches, and several newspapers. The place was first settled as Newtown in 1630. At that time it was intended by Winthrop and others to make it the principal town in the colony. Mr. Hooker was settled as the first minister in 1632. In 1638 a vote was passed appropriating money to establish a public school, to which was added the large grant, as above, by Rev. John Harvard, of Charlestown. The city was incorporated in 1846. It now has a regular City Government, vested in a Mayor, Aldermen, and Common Council.



GORE HALL, CAMBRIDGE.



NEW ORLEANS SCENERY.

1. Metairie Cemetery. 2. Jackson Square. 3. Garvier Street. 4. View from St. Patrick's Cathedral.
5. Stonewall Jackson Monument. 6. Robert E. Lee Monument. 7. West End Promenade.
8. Entrance to Metairie Cemetery. 9. West End Hotel. 10. Tombs Metairie Cemetery.
11. Staircase to Grand Opera House. 12. On the Levee.

CITY OF NEW ORLEANS.



NEW ORLEANS, the metropolis of Louisiana, and a port of entry, is situated on the left bank of the Mississippi, 108 miles from its mouth. It ranks next to New York in the value of its exports and foreign commerce. Nearly all the streets running parallel with the Mississippi River, from the lower to the upper part of the city, are about 12 miles long; the streets running at right angles to these descend from the river bank to the swamps; the drainage is by canals which open into

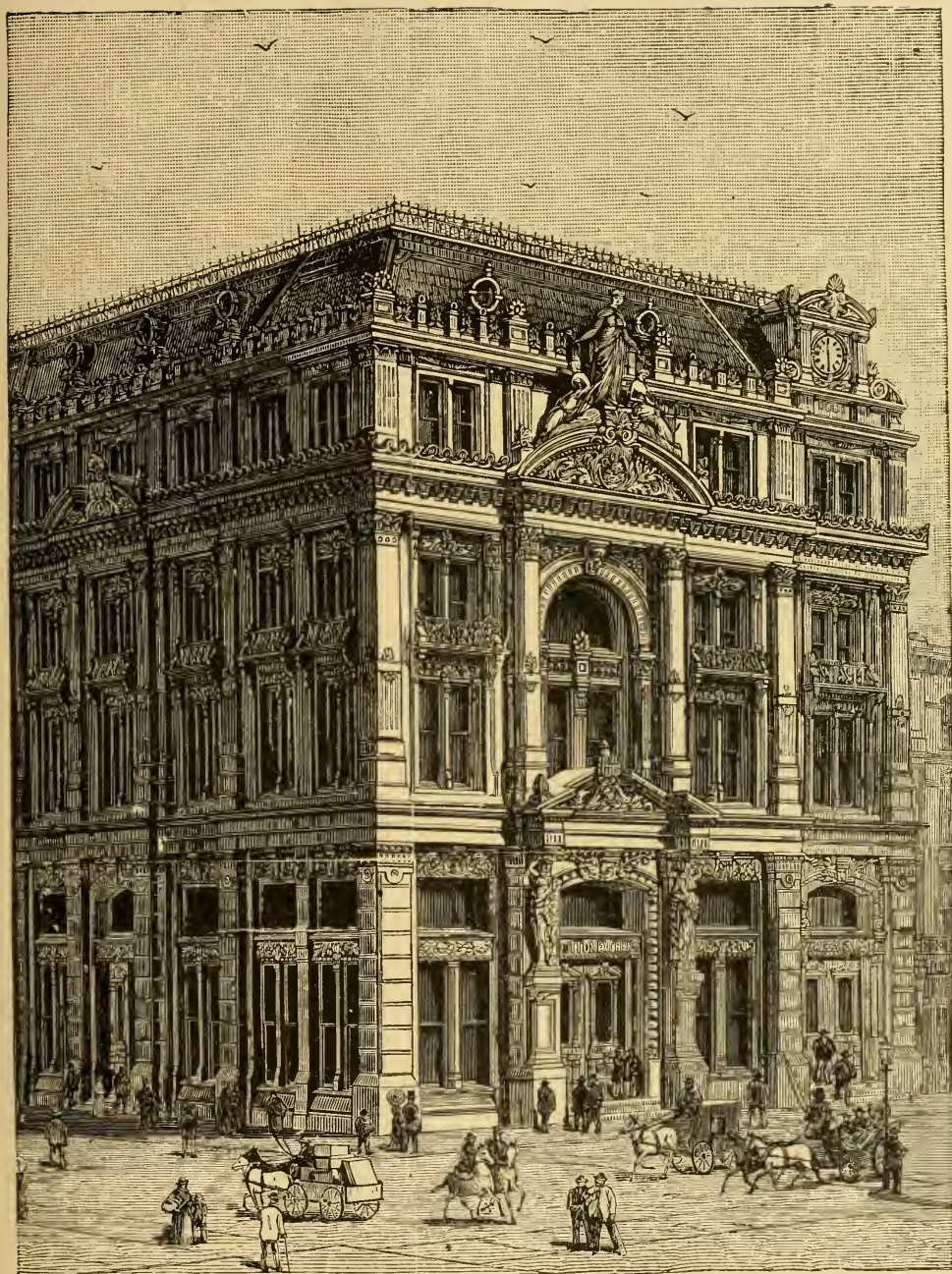


LAFAYETTE SQUARE, NEW ORLEANS.

Lake Pontchartrain, which is on a level with the Gulf of Mexico. The city being built on ground lower than the high-water level, is protected from inundations by the levee or embankments, which extend on both banks of the river for several hundred miles. About half of its 60 square miles of territory is closely inhabited, while the rest is nearly all swamp. The city extends along the river on an inner and outer curve, giving it the shape of the letter S. The older portion, extending around the outer curve, gave it the name of the "Crescent City." New Orleans is the great port of transshipment for a large portion of the crops of the Southwestern States, and the produce of the vast region drained by the Mississippi and its tributaries. It commands

10,000 miles of steamboat navigation, and is the natural entrepôt of one of the richest regions of the world. In 1861 the city had arrived at its greatest commercial prosperity; in that year it received and handled 460,000 hogsheads of sugar and 2,255,448 bales of cotton. Its commerce and general prosperity were greatly retarded by the War, and since that period by political agitation and severe visitations of yellow fever; yet, notwithstanding these drawbacks, its imports average about \$12,000,000 and its exports nearly \$100,000,000. The Custom-house is one of the largest buildings in America. In consequence of its natural advantages, geographical location, and the recent navigation improvements in the river, the commerce of New Orleans is destined to be greatly increased, and the probabilities are that it will eventually be one of the first cities in America. It is generally conceded that New Orleans is an unhealthy city to reside in; its vital statistics, however, show plainly that it is not exceptionally so in comparison with other cities in the United States and throughout the world. Many sanitary improvements have been introduced since the yellow-fever epidemic of 1878. It is seldom that the temperature is in the extreme, ranging from 50° to 85°, the general average being about 68°. New Orleans bears the impress of three distinct civilizations in her society, her architecture, and her laws. It was settled in 1718 by the French; in 1762 it was transferred to Spain with Louisiana; and in 1800 retransferred to France, and sold in 1803, by Napoleon I., with a vast territory, for \$15,000,000, to the United States. At this time the population was about 8,000, mostly French and Spanish. It was successfully defended in 1815 by General Jackson, afterward President, against the British. The city became an important centre of military operations during the War for the Union. Louisiana having seceded in 1860, a Federal fleet blockaded the city. Farragut, with an expedition of gun-boats, forced the defences near the entrance to the river on April 24, 1862. The city was forced to surrender, and was then occupied by General Benjamin F. Butler, as military governor.

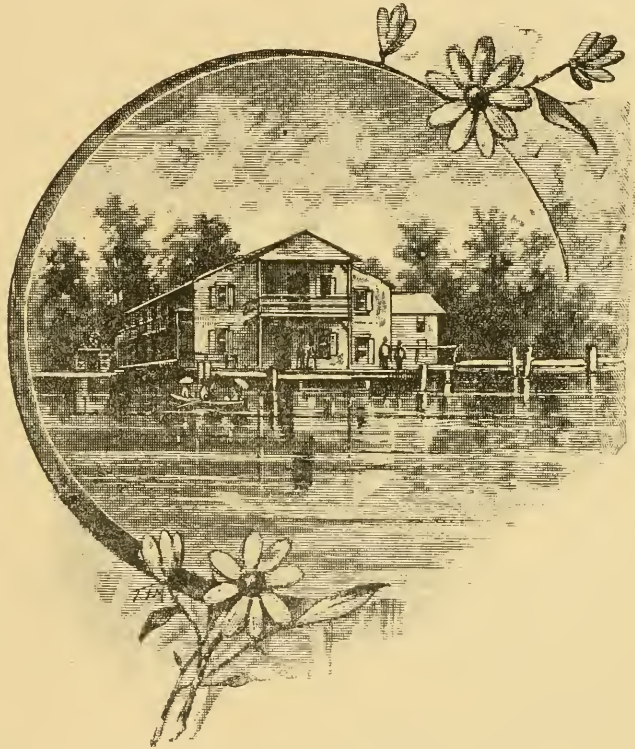
Among the buildings of fine architectural appearance are the Roman Catholic cathedral, on Lafayette Square, facing the levee; the Mint, the Post-office, the City Hall, the Custom-house, and State-house. The hotels, theatres, and public buildings are on a magnificent scale. There are numerous hospitals, infirmaries, and asylums, several colleges, and 145 churches. Besides the great river, New Orleans has railways connecting it with all parts of the country. The soil is full of water, so that no excavations can be made. The largest buildings have no cellars below the surface, and in the cemeteries



COTTON EXCHANGE, NEW ORLEANS.

there are no graves, but the dead are placed in tombs or "ovens," five or six tiers above ground. To the stranger the long streets of tombs are somewhat depressing. With a view to burning the remains a Cremation society was organized in the city a few years ago. The water is supplied from the river for household purposes, except drinking, for which rain-water only, kept in cisterns, is used.

There are numerous public parks, several canals, and 16 markets. The best streets are wide, bordered with trees, and are very attractive in appearance; some of them paved and some of them shelled, all lined with princely residences set with gardens, where the palm and magnolia are in their glory, and the roses blossom in mid-winter. Canal Street, which is the great wide thoroughfare, has many fine stores and elegant private residences. The continuation of Canal Street is a fine shell road to the lake, the shores of which contain an inexhaustible quantity of white shells.



BOAT CLUB HOUSE AT NEW ORLEANS, LA.

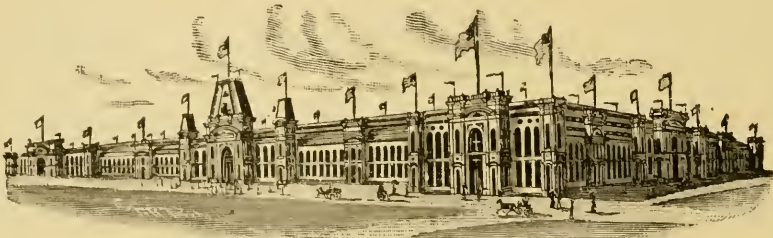
The manufactures, which are small in proportion to the commerce, consist of oil, syrup, soap, cotton-seed oil, sugar refineries, distilleries, and breweries. There are a large number of insurance companies, banking institutions, towboat companies, and custom-house warehouses.

The city has a Mayor, and seven officers, known as administrators. The police are mounted, and under the control of the Governor of the State. The public schools, of which there are nearly 100, are also under State control, the city providing for their support. Among the other educational in-

stitutions are the Mechanical and Agricultural College, the Dental College, the Jesuit College, and the University of Louisiana. There are about 40 Catholic churches, and a large Catholic population, consisting of French, Irish, Italians, and Spanish.

In 1820 the population of New Orleans had increased to 27,000; in 1860, to 168,823; and consisted of Americans, French, Creoles, Irish, Germans, Spaniards, etc. In 1870 it was 191,418; in 1880, 216,090; and in 1889, 250,000.

Before the mint was established in New Orleans the coins used were Spanish, the dollar being the Spanish milled dollar. There were several other coins, including the pistareen (20 cts.), and the picayune, the latter, being equal to $6\frac{1}{4}$ cts., was the smallest coin used. After the mint was established, and previous to the Civil War, our nickel was the smallest coin in circulation, and many used to say that they did not want any "nasty dirty cents."



THE MAIN BUILDING, WORLD'S EXPOSITION.

To say the least, it is a wonderful city, and has a great future. It has some of the finest restaurants in the world. Hospitality is the rule and not the exception; hearts appear to widen, nature expands under the influence of the genial southern sun, and a stranger cannot remain a stranger in New Orleans long.

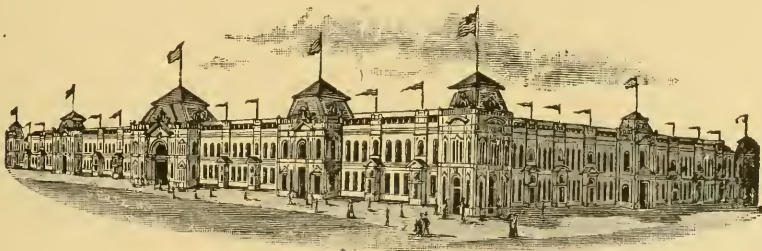
New Orleans has been known as the Paris of America, the home of refinement, wealth, and luxury, and the abode of pleasure. It is a most cosmopolitan city; and its ways partake largely of the traditional habits of both Spanish and French towns. It is gay, yet sad. Its people are fond of idleness, yet build up and sustain a great commerce. It is an enigma. The streets in the French quarter are narrow. It may be Sunday morning, but trade is going on briskly. The names of streets and firms are all those of a foreign people. Here and there one encounters a word in Spanish or Italian.

The great Cosmopolitan French Market, where one may buy almost anything that can be named, rambles along in several squares of low, densely

populated sheds, with a labyrinth of narrow alley-ways. It is quite the thing to resort here early on Sunday morning, and, taking a cup of excellent coffee from one of the many stands, mingle with the populace for an hour, and enter into the spirit of their Sunday bargain-making.

From the French Market it is a pleasant walk along the broad levee, thronged at all times with people who have business upon the great marine highway which bisects the Union. Here are acres of cotton, of molasses in huge hogsheads, and of tobacco or general merchandise. The huge steamers, of the curious pattern peculiar to Western rivers, are ranged along the levee for miles; their blunt noses run diagonally up against the sloping shore; long gang-planks are thrown out and double ranks of sable roustabouts go and come like ants with their burdens, singing in time with their work.

The merchant will admire the beautiful structure of the Cotton Exchange.



UNITED STATES AND STATE EXHIBITS' BUILDING.

The club life of the city is a feature, and the restaurants, saloons, and billiard parlors, theatres and concert-halls, with their myriad lights, impart a Parisian-like effect to the streets in the evening. Canal Street is the great thoroughfare and fashionable promenade of the city. With its beautiful buildings and picturesque walks, illuminated by the faces and figures of the most beautiful women in America, gay with showy equipages and brilliant with the displays of the great shops, Canal Street will be found to rival in attractions the thoroughfares of many of the cities of this or any other land.

THE WORLD'S EXPOSITION OF 1883.

Fortunately for the World's Exposition, its resources, though not lavish, were abundant for all the purposes of providing ample space, securing necessary attractions and promoting the completest success. The appropriation by the General Government of \$1,300,000, the contribution of the citizens of

New Orleans of \$500,000, and the appropriation by the City of New Orleans and the State of Louisiana each of \$100,000, afforded an ample source for the purposes mentioned. The management of the Exposition had been benefited by the experience gained by others in conducting like undertakings. It did not consider it politic nor necessary to give to temporary structures the same degree of elaboration and detail that should be given to those that were intended for permanence. So that, as an instance, the main building of the World's Exposition, while affording fifty per cent. more space than the main building of the Philadelphia Centennial, and being fully as pleasing in architectural design and appearance, affording equal facilities in every respect for position, inspection, and display, did not cost one-fourth as much to erect. The same can be said of the other structures.

The carnival pageants, which occurred about the middle of the Exposition period, were the most elaborate and brilliant of this world-wide famed festival.

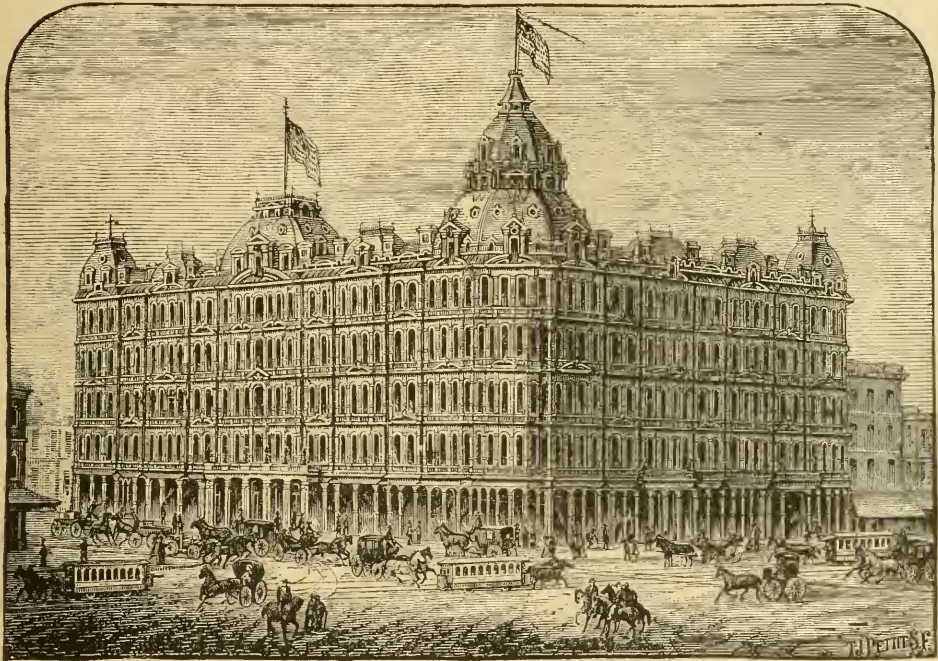


COMFORTS OF MODERN TRAVEL—THE DRAWING-ROOM CAR OF TO-DAY.

CITY OF SAN FRANCISCO.



AN FRANCISCO is the most important city on the Pacific Coast of North America. It is the capital of San Francisco County, California. The city and county, which were consolidated in 1856, contain an area of $41\frac{3}{4}$ square miles. The city is situated at the north end of a peninsula 20 miles long, and, at this end, six miles wide, which



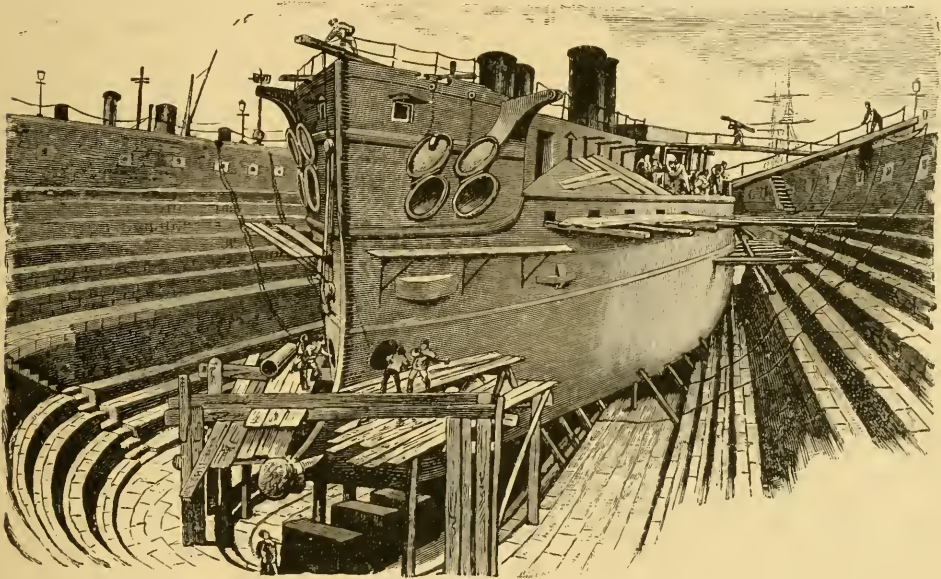
THE BALDWIN HOUSE.

separates the ocean from the Bay of San Francisco, and comprises, in addition to the northern part of the peninsula, several islands, some of which are 24 miles out in the Pacific. It is about five miles south of the Golden Gate, which is three miles wide, and is the outlet, leading west through the range of mountains on the coast, and connecting the bay with the Pacific Ocean. Table Hill, on the north of this strait, is 2,500 feet high. The city enjoys a monopoly of the commerce on the North Pacific Coast in consequence of its harbor, which is decidedly the finest on the western coast of North America.

The bay extends 50 miles in a direction slightly east of south, and is in some parts 20 miles wide. The Guadaloupe River empties itself into the south end of the bay. At the north the bay communicates, by a strait very much like the Golden Gate, with San Pablo Bay, which is about 15 miles in diameter, which receives the waters of the two principal rivers of California, the Sacramento and San Joaquin. The climate is mild and healthy; the temperature in January is 49°; in July, 58°; and averages about 56°. The summer is exceedingly cool and delightful. About 50 ocean steamers run from this port regularly to Japan, Australia, China, Panama, Mexico, Victoria, and to domestic ports on the Pacific Ocean, besides many inland steamers which ply on the tributaries to the bay. About 5,000 sea-going vessels arrive in San Francisco annually. Four railroads, the Central Pacific, the North Pacific Coast, the California Pacific, and the San Francisco and North Pacific, terminate on the Bay of San Francisco, being connected with the city by steam-ferries, the Southern Pacific being the only railroad which terminates in the city. A part of the land upon which the city stands was quite hilly, but has been leveled. The soil is sandy and unproductive. The connection of the Central Pacific Railroad with the Union Pacific Railroad, completed in 1870, makes San Francisco an important point as the commercial highway from Europe and the eastern United States to Asia. In 1776 a Spanish military post was established on the present site of the city. A mission of San Franciscan Friars was commenced in the same year by two Spanish monks for converting Indians. This mission flourished, and in 1825 had 1,800 Indians under its care, and possessed 76,000 cattle and 97,000 sheep. In 1835, the property of the mission having been secularized, a village was laid out and called Yerba Buena. The name was changed to San Francisco in 1847; at this time the population was only 450.

In 1848 the discovery of gold in California created an immense excitement, and people flocked there from all parts of the world. The growth of San Francisco from that time was marvelous. In three years the population had increased from 450 to 25,000, and the city was then incorporated (1850). In 1849-51 the city was visited by several large fires which devastated the business portion. Slight earthquakes are frequent, but do little damage. In 1851-56 the criminal classes were so numerous and lawless, and the municipal government so corrupt, that the citizens, in order to protect themselves, organized vigilance committees, which summarily dealt with a number of public criminals and awed others into subjection. Since that time the city has been more orderly.

It was here that, in 1877-78, Dennis Kearney created so much excitement, and from which trouble was apprehended. San Francisco has probably the finest hotels in the world, among which is the Baldwin House, which, it is stated, cost \$3,500,000 in construction. It is one of the most magnificent buildings of the kind in the world. The Palace Hotel is said to be the largest, and for architectural beauty is rarely excelled. It cost \$3,250,000 in land and construction. Both these houses are first-class in all their appointments. The Cosmopolitan, the Occidental, and the Lick House are also first-class hotels. The custom of residing in hotels is very popular in San Francisco, not only



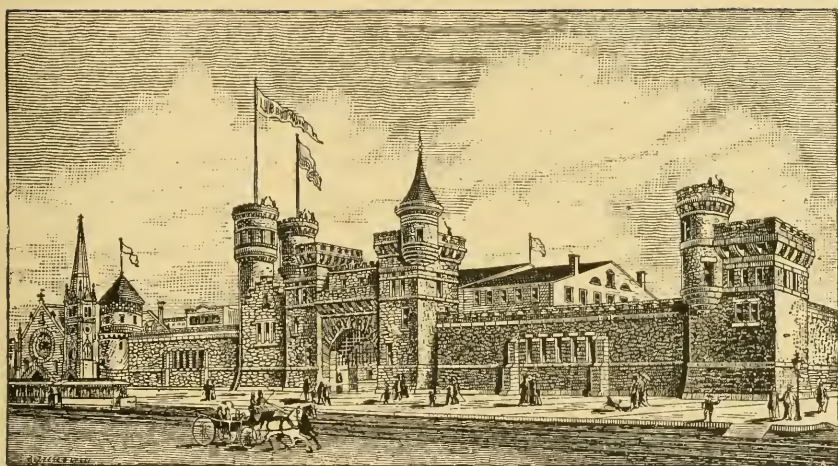
WAR VESSEL IN THE DRY DOCK, MARE ISLAND NAVY YARD, SAN FRANCISCO.

for single men, but also for families; and some of the hotels have accommodations for 1,200 guests. Several of the public buildings are fine specimens of architecture. Among these are the new City Hall, which cost \$4,000,000; the Merchants' Exchange, the Mercantile Library building, the Bank of California, the new U. S. Branch Mint. The Custom-house and Post-office is a plain, substantial building. In the southern portion of the city, especially in Dupont and Stockton streets, are a large number of fine, handsome, brick residences. The fashionable promenades, on which are the great retail stores, are Montgomery, Market, and Kearney Streets. On California Street can be found the principal banks and brokers' and insurance offices. In Front, Sansome,

and Battery Streets can be found the principal wholesale houses. Many of the private residences are built of wood, which in many instances are very handsome, and the grounds laid out with flowers and evergreens. The streets are wide, and cross each other at right angles; there are no shade trees. The business portion, which is closely built up, is paved with Belgian blocks and cobble-stones. There are nearly 100 churches in the city, which is the residence of an Episcopal bishop and a Roman Catholic archbishop. The most important church edifices are St. Mary's Cathedral and St. Patrick's Church (both Roman Catholic), the latter being the finest church edifice on the Pacific Slope; Grace Church and Trinity Church (both Episcopal) are fine structures. The First Unitarian Church is considered one of the finest buildings in the city. The city has over 100 papers and periodicals; 18 public libraries; various charitable institutions and schools; five colleges, three of which are literary and two medical; an academy of sciences; and a school of design.

Of the population attracted by the discovery of gold to San Francisco, a great number are Irish, German, British, French, and Chinese. The Chinese have a church, Roman Catholic, with a Chinese priest educated at Rome; and a school. Among the manufactures are flour, woolen goods, iron, silk goods, carriages, iron castings, glass, soap, leather, cordage, pianos, furniture, billiard tables, wind-mills, willow-ware, sashes, doors, cigars, boots and shoes, etc. The Golden Gate Park, west of the city, contains 1,043 acres. It is the only public park, and is not yet completed. There are three or four public squares in the city, which are planted with trees and shrubs. "Chinatown" is a great curiosity to strangers. It is here that the Chinamen are huddled together, and live as though in China. They have Chinese theatres, joss-houses, opium-cellars, and gambling-houses.

The exports are chiefly wheat, barley, wool, quicksilver, hides, furs, flour, gunpowder, and copper-ore. The imports include sugar, coal, rice, coffee, tea, wines and spirits, iron cotton, silk, and various manufactured goods. With the finest harbor on the coast, and a population mainly composed of enterprising people from all parts of the world, it is not surprising that the city is distinguished by its great accumulation of capital, large financial institutions, and great mining operations. On January 1, 1880, 889 vessels belonged to the port of entry, of 205,206 tons in aggregate. The exports, consisting of treasure and merchandise, amount to about \$62,000,000 annually. Population: 1860, 56,000; 1870, 149,000; 1880, 300,000; 1889, 320,000; including 25,000 Chinese. Less than one-half are natives of the United States.



ENCLOSURE SHOWING LIBBY PRISON WAR MUSEUM, REMOVED FROM RICHMOND, VIRGINIA, AND REBUILT
ON WABASH AVENUE, CHICAGO, ILLINOIS, IN 1889.



PULLMAN BUILDING, SOUTHWEST CORNER MICHIGAN AVENUE AND
ADAMS STREET.

CITY OF CHICAGO.



CHICAGO is the principal city of Illinois. It is situated on the southwestern shore of Lake Michigan, at the mouth of the Chicago River; on this site in 1803 a stockade fort was built, and named Fort Dearborn; the place was first settled in 1831; in 1832 it contained about a dozen families, besides the officers and soldiers at Fort Dearborn. The town was organized by the election of a board of trustees, August 10, 1833. On September 26th, of the same year, a treaty was made for all their lands with the Pottawattomies, 7,000 of the tribe being present, after which they were removed west of the Mississippi River. The first charter of the city was passed by the Legislature March 4, 1837.

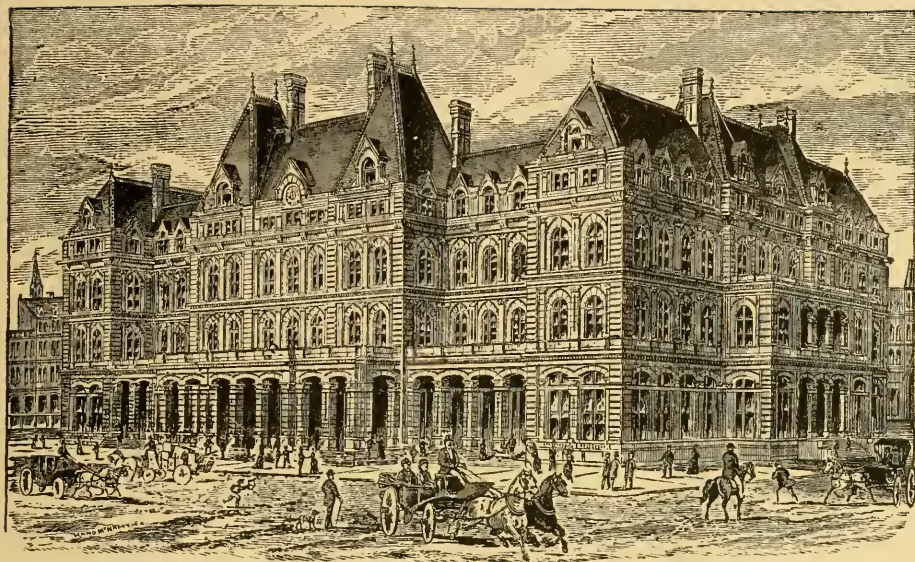
Chicago is considered the most remarkable city in the world for its rapid growth. When in 1831 the first white settlement was made, it seemed a very poor site on which to build a great city; it consisted of muddy flats; the harbors were constructed to a great extent by human enterprise and ingenuity; the channel was dredged, the flats filled, and artificial structures erected to keep the waves of the lake from overflowing the city; in addition to this the grade of the principal portion of the city was eventually raised from 6 to 10 feet; as the people of Chicago had suffered much from various kinds of fever and sickness, caused by the low, marshy situation, it was found necessary to have a thorough system of sewerage, which could only be had by raising the city. Immense hotels, large business structures, and blocks of heavy buildings were raised by jack-screws, worked by steam power, to the required level; it was one of the most extraordinary and stupendous engineering experiments ever undertaken in this or any country, but it was finally accomplished. The city is now built upon a plain sufficiently elevated to prevent inundation, and possesses a splendid harbor equal to the demands of its great commerce. The river extends back from the lake nearly three-quarters of a mile, at which point two branches intersect it, one from the south and the other from the north; the south branch of the river is connected by the Illinois and Michigan Canal (which was completed in 1848) with the Illinois River at La Salle, making a direct water communication with the Mississippi. The canal is 96 miles in length, and was originally 12 feet above the lake at its highest level; it is now $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet below the lake; to accomplish



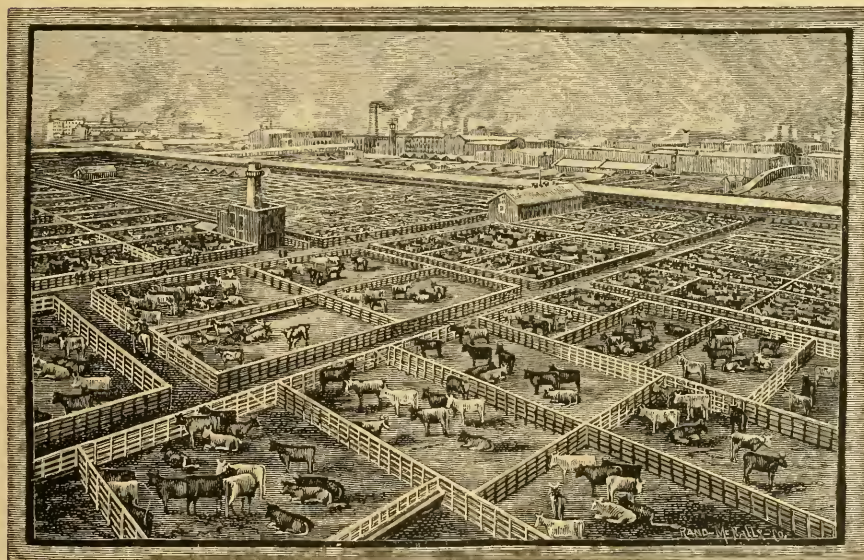
COUNTY COURT HOUSE AND CITY HALL.



NEW BOARD OF TRADE BUILDING.

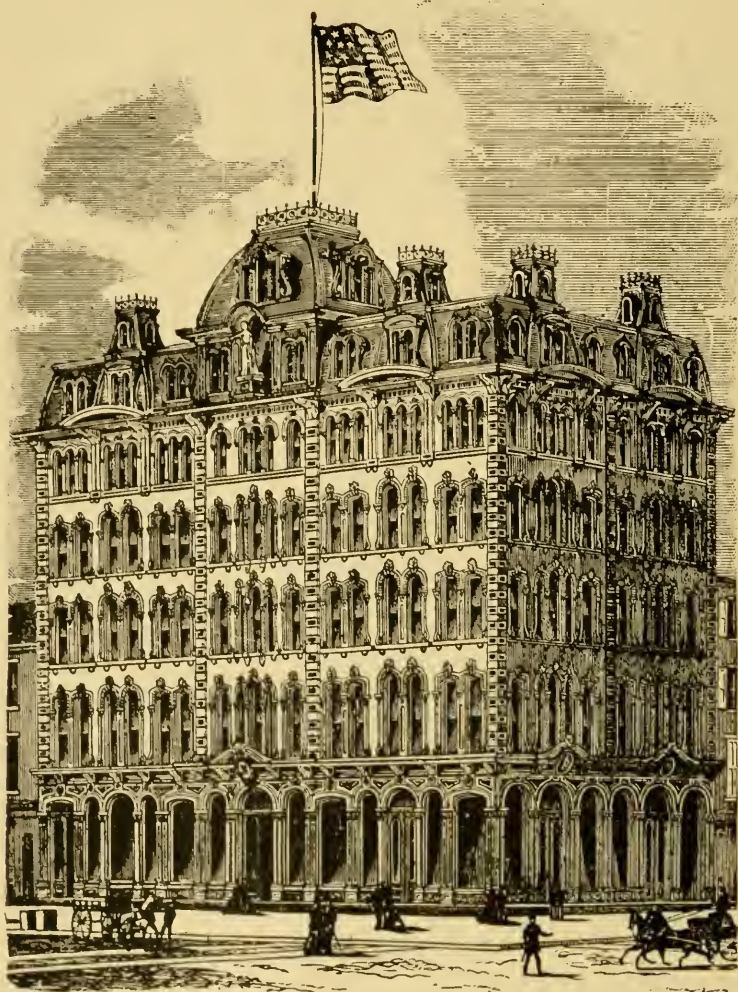


POST-OFFICE AND CUSTOM HOUSE, CLARK AND ADAMS STREETS.



UNION STOCK YARDS, NEAR FORTIETH AND HALSTED STREETS.

this the city expended in 1866-70 no less than \$3,250,000. The river channel was also deepened; so that in place of flowing into the lake, its stream flows the other way, receiving a fine supply of water from the lake, which carries off the sewage of the city at the rate of a mile an hour, and adds increased



THE OLD PALMER HOUSE. DESTROYED IN THE GREAT FIRE OF 1871.

facilities for navigation. Magnificent lines of breakwater protect the harbor at the mouth of the river, and form large basins for vessels, one of which covers about 300 acres. The extent of the city along the lake side is about eight miles, and its area is 40 square miles. The streets cross at right angles,

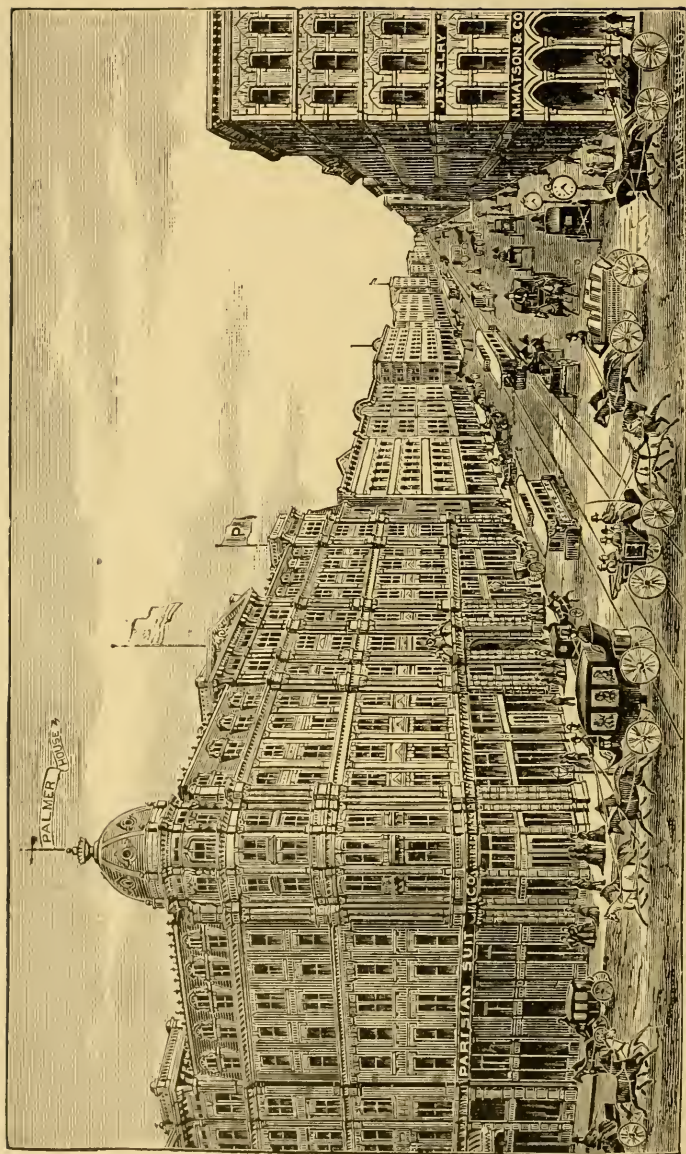
and are about 66 to 80 feet wide. The city is well laid out; the principal avenues running parallel with the lake.

Numerous bridges, and two stone tunnels under the river-bed, connect the north, south, and west divisions. The tunnels cost the city about \$1,000,000, and are the result of great engineering skill; the south division contains most of the business and principal buildings of the city.

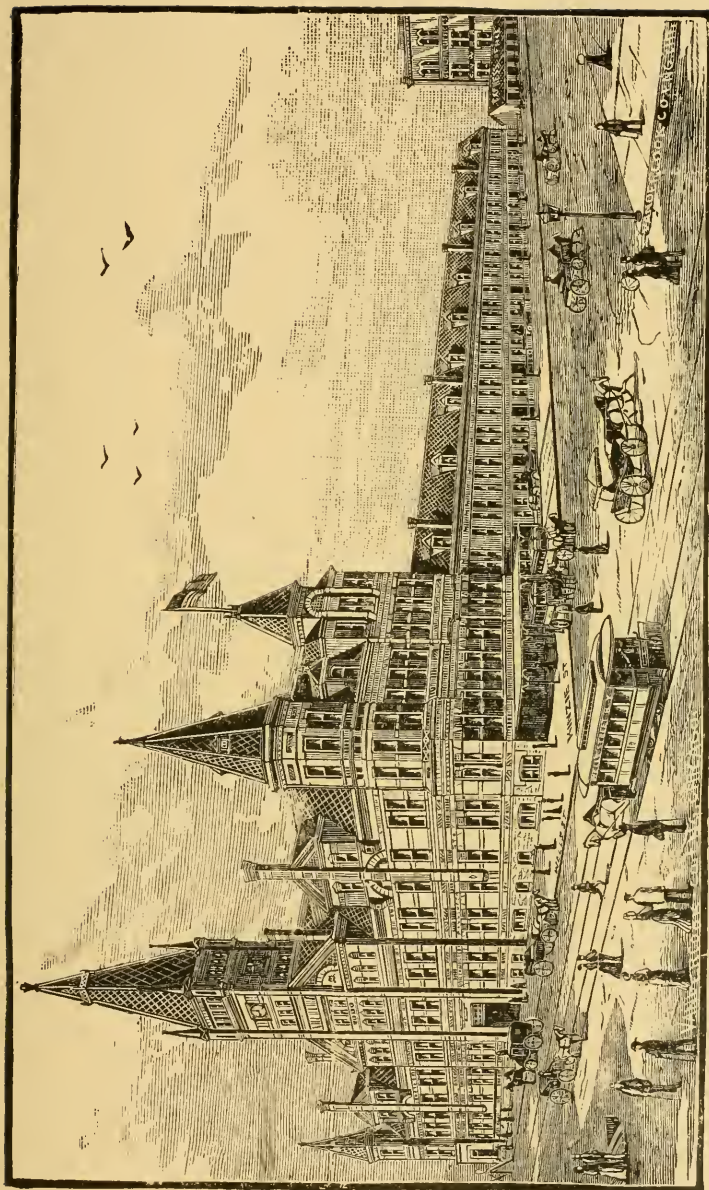
The adoption of high license in Chicago has increased the revenue obtained by the city from saloons from \$200,000 to \$1,500,000 a year, and has reduced the number of saloons from 3,777 to 3,432. The license charge is \$500.

Chicago has some very remarkable buildings, among which is the Chamber of Commerce, a very elaborate structure, beautifully decorated inside; the new County Court-house and City Hall, which occupies a whole block, and cost \$5,000,000; the United States Custom-house and Post-office, which cost over \$5,000,000, and occupies an entire block of 342 feet by 210 feet. The Exposition building is of iron and glass, and is a vast structure 800 by 200 feet; its dome is 160 feet high and 60 feet in diameter. Some of the public schools are capable of holding 1,000 children, and every child, without distinction, can be educated free, and have the advantages of the High-school, which teaches the classics and modern languages; the Catholics have schools of their own, and there are numerous private academies. Connected with the University of Chicago is a law school, the Dearborn Astronomical Observatory, and a library of about 25,000 volumes; this is a Baptist institution, and was established through the efforts of Stephen A. Douglas. There are six medical colleges, one of which is open to women; four theological seminaries, one each—Baptist, Congregational, Lutheran, and Presbyterian; several commercial colleges and female seminaries. St. Ignatius College is a very successful institution. The Public Library contains over 100,000 volumes; the Academy of Sciences has a new museum and library. There are over 300 churches in the city, some of which are very fine structures. The famous Libby Prison, removed from Richmond in 1889 and rebuilt on Wabash Avenue, is used as a museum for war relics and attracts many visitors. The finest parks are Lincoln, Central, Douglas, and Humboldt; six parks contain a total of 2,000 acres; they are connected by fine drives 250 feet wide and 30 miles long.

Chicago is probably the greatest railroad centre in the world; about 500 trains enter and leave daily. Over 30 railroads make this a common centre. The Union Passenger Depot, an imposing structure built of Illinois limestone,

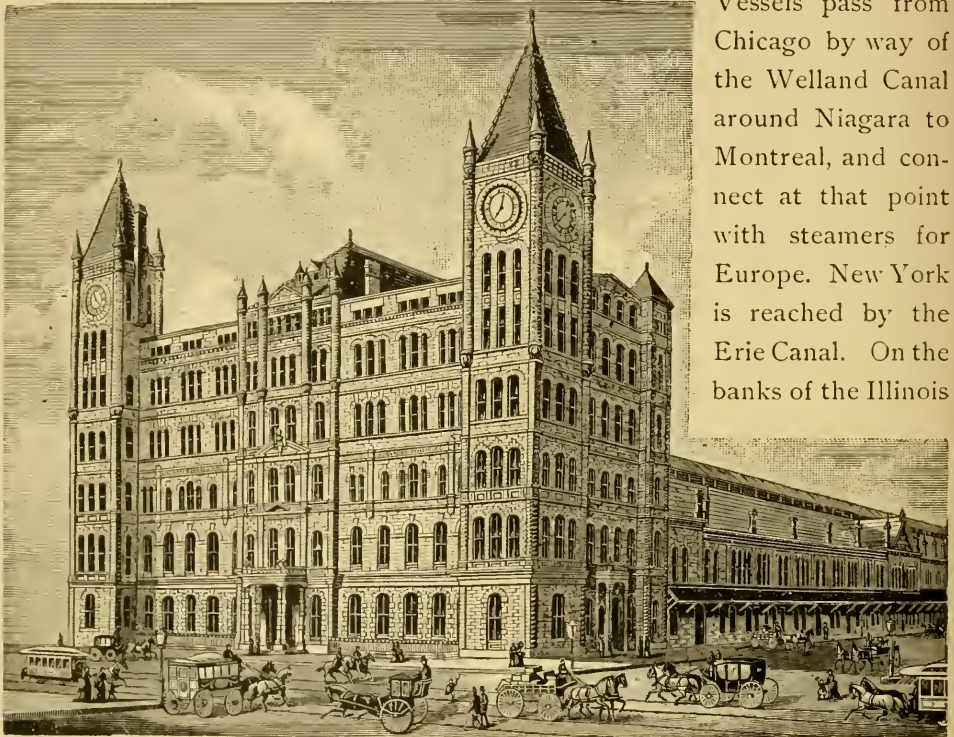


THE NEW PALMER HOUSE. A VIEW OF STATE STREET FROM THE CORNER OF MONROE STREET.



PASSENGER DEPOT OF THE CHICAGO AND NORTH-WESTERN RAILROAD, CORNER OF WELLS AND
KINZIE STREETS.

is located on Van Buren Street, flanked on the east by Pacific Avenue, and west by Sherman Street. It is 600 feet deep by 172 feet wide (covering an entire block), and is about 200 feet high from pavement to extremity of towers. Three additional stories were added to the building in 1887, making it six and a half stories high. The vast commerce of the entire chain of northern lakes, with 3,000 miles of coast line, also centres in this great city. Immense quantities of iron and copper ore are brought from the shores of Lake Superior.



MAIN PASSENGER DEPOT AT CHICAGO, ILL.

Vessels pass from Chicago by way of the Welland Canal around Niagara to Montreal, and connect at that point with steamers for Europe. New York is reached by the Erie Canal. On the banks of the Illinois

and Michigan Canal, about 20 miles from Chicago, are vast quarries of marble called Athens marble; it is considered the finest building material in the Union. This canal is of great importance, as it is convenient for the coal-fields of Illinois, and gives direct communication with the Mississippi, its tributaries, and the Gulf of Mexico.

In October, 1871, a terrible fire occurred, which raged two days and nights, burned 18,000 houses, extending over more than 2,000 acres, embracing nearly all the business portion of the city and a large number of private residences; 200 persons perished, and nearly 100,000 were rendered homeless.

The property burned was estimated at \$200,000,000; it included the Court-house, Custom-house, Post-office, newspaper offices, 10 theatres and halls, 41 churches, 32 hotels, 3 railroad depots, 5 grain elevators, 8 school-houses, and of the banks there was only one left. The insurance recovered was about \$40,000,000. This stupendous calamity awakened the sympathy of the civilized world. The city was entirely rebuilt in a style of great magnificence within two years. Over \$7,000,000 were raised in this country and in Europe in aid of the sufferers.

As a commercial centre Chicago ranks next to New York. It is the most extensive lumber market in the world; its trade in grain and flour is almost fabulous; since 1854 it has been the largest grain depot in the world. Pork-packing is conducted on a very extensive scale; beef in large quantities is killed, packed, and shipped by way of the lakes to Europe. The great cattle yards were opened in 1858; they occupy nearly 1,000 acres. There are over 100 newspapers and periodicals, and it has become a great book-publishing centre. Ship-building is conducted to a considerable extent. Among the manufactures are watches, leather and leather goods, cotton, agricultural implements, boots and shoes, iron, flour, high-wines, etc., etc.

The water supply for the city comes from Lake Michigan, and is conducted in two brick tunnels, one 7 feet and the other 6 feet in diameter; these extend 2 miles under the lake and meet in an immense inclosure, where the water descends into them through a grated cylinder; one of these was completed in 1866, and the other in 1874. The cost of the tunnels under the lake was \$1,500,000; the water-works up to the present time cost \$10,416,000. In addition to this the city has many artesian wells, which yield a large supply for the stock-yards and the West Side Park.

The city has a multitude of benevolent and charitable institutions; including several orphan asylums, dispensaries, homes for the aged, indigent, and friendless, etc., etc. The Young Men's Christian Association has been very active for the relief of the poor and destitute, and did good service at the time of the great fire; as did also the Chicago Relief and Aid Society, which distributed the vast amount of money contributed for the sufferers.

The population in 1835 was 1,000; 1840, 4,470; 1850, 28,260; 1860, 150,000; 1870, 298,977; 1880, 503,304; 1889, 850,000.

CITY OF DETROIT.

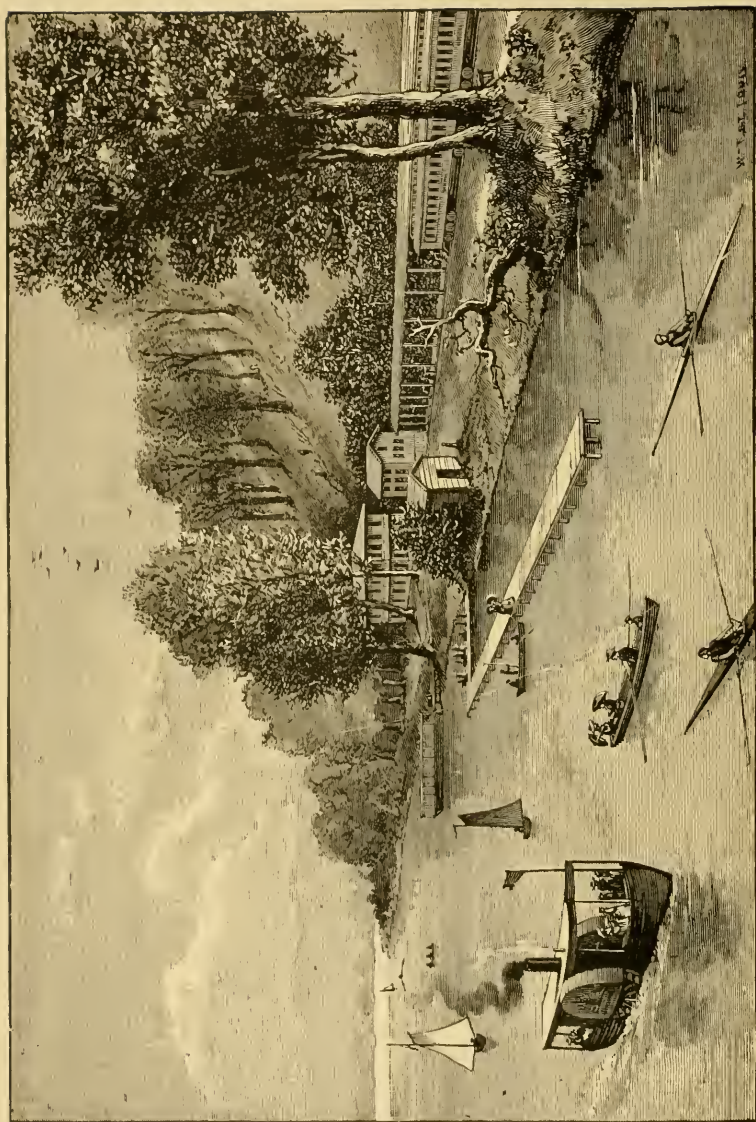


ETROIT, the chief city of Michigan, the oldest city by far in the west of the United States, and older than either Baltimore or Philadelphia on the seaboard, was founded by the French of Canada in 1670, as an outpost for the prosecution of the fur trade, on the right bank of the river of its own name, about 18 miles from Lake Erie and 7 miles from Lake St. Clair. For more than a century and a half, however, the advantages of its position were rather prospective than actual. The settlement of the adjacent wilderness was so slowly carried into effect that Michigan, of which Detroit was the capital, continued to be a subordinate territory from 1803 to 1837. The site is sufficiently elevated above the river to afford excellent facilities for drainage, which have been thoroughly improved. The river, which is the dividing line at this point between the United States and Canada, is half a mile wide and over 30 feet deep, forming the best harbor on the lakes. The city extends 6 or 7 miles along the bank of the river, and from 2 to 3 miles back from it. The river front is lined with warehouses, mills, foundries, grain elevators, railway stations, shipyards, dry docks, etc., the signs of an enterprising and thriving community. Fort Wayne, a mile below, commands the channel. The site of the city was visited by the French early in the 17th century, but no permanent settlement was made by them until 1701. Sixty-two years later, in 1763, at the close of the war between England and France, it fell into the possession of the English. Immediately after this Pontiac, the great Ottawa chief, made a desperate but unsuccessful effort to expel the whites from all that region. In 1778 Detroit contained only 300 inhabitants, living for the most part in log huts. The British, in 1778, erected a fort, which, after the Americans gained possession, became Fort Shelby. At the peace of 1783, Detroit became a part of the United States, but the Americans did not take possession until thirteen years later. The place was wholly destroyed by fire in 1803, and two years afterward the present city was laid out. In the war of 1812 it was surrendered by General Hull to the British, but recovered by the Americans after the battle of Lake Erie in 1813. It was incorporated as a village in 1815, as a city in 1824. It was the seat of government of the Territory of Michigan from 1803

to 1837, and of the State of Michigan from the latter date till 1847. The streets are broad and well paved and lighted; many of them lined with beautiful shade trees. The avenues are from 100 to 120 feet wide. Many of the business structures are large, solid, and imposing, and there are many elegant and costly private residences. The city has had a very rapid growth, the population increasing from 770 in 1810, to 116,340 in 1880, and 236,000 in 1889. The principal park of Detroit is the "Grand Circus," and it is the centre from which the principal avenues radiate. It is semicircular, and divided by Woodward Avenue into two parts, each adorned with a fountain. The "Campus Martius" is a plot of ground 600 feet long and 250 feet wide, crossed by two avenues. Facing it is the City Hall, a fine structure of sandstone, 200 feet in length by 90 feet in width, which cost \$600,000. In front of the City Hall is a monument to the soldiers of Michigan who fell in the War of the Rebellion; and facing the Campus Martius on the north is an opera house, a large and fine building. The United States Custom-house and Post-office, a large building of stone, is on Griswold Street. The largest church edifice is the Roman Catholic Cathedral, but there are several of other denominations which are fine specimens of architecture. The Roman Catholic Convent of the Sacred Heart is a large and handsome structure. The Michigan Central freight depot is 1,250 feet long and 102 feet wide—a single room, covered by a self-supporting roof of iron; and near it stands a grain elevator with cupola, commanding a fine prospect. The House of Correction is also a very handsome building, erected at a cost of \$300,000, with a capacity for 450 inmates.

There are many lines of steamers with elegant boats running to different points on the lakes. Eight great lines of railroad centre here. The large foreign commerce of Detroit is almost exclusively with the adjoining British possessions. The exports mostly consist of wheat, oats, corn, hogs, cotton, bacon, lumber, lard, etc. The trade in lumber is simply immense. A very large trade is done in cattle. There are numerous foundries and blast-furnaces, copper-smelting works, locomotive and car works, safe factories, furniture establishments, iron-bridge works, brick-yards, flour-mills, tanneries, breweries, distilleries, and tobacco and cigar factories.

The city is supplied with water from the Detroit River, by works valued at nearly \$1,250,000. The public-school system is well organized. The Detroit Medical College was established in 1868, and the Homoeopathic College in 1871. There is a fine public library, and 65 churches.

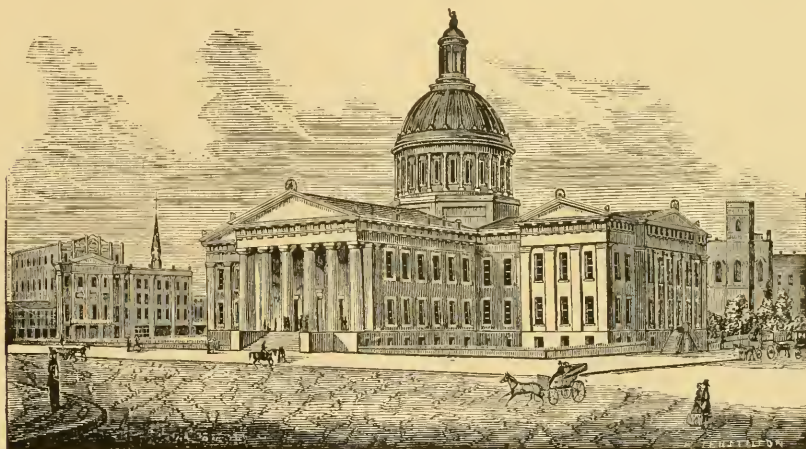


CREVE CEUR LAKE, NEAR ST. LOUIS, ON THE LINE OF THE MISSOURI PACIFIC RAILROAD.

CITY OF ST. LOUIS.



ST LOUIS is the chief city and commercial metropolis of Missouri. It is a port of entry, and is situated on the west bank of the Mississippi River, 180 miles above the mouth of the Ohio, and about 1,200 miles above New Orleans, and 18 miles below the confluence of the Missouri. It is connected with East St. Louis, a city in Illinois, by a magnificent bridge of steel, which cost \$10,000,000. The bridge was begun in 1869 and completed in 1874. It is 2,225 feet long by 54 feet wide. The



THE COURT-HOUSE.

central span is the longest in the world, being 520 feet, and 60 feet above the water. The bridge was designed by Captain James B. Eads.

On the present site of the city was established, in 1734, a trading-post with the Indians; it was named after Louis XV. of France. In 1764 it was the depot of the Louisiana Indian Trading Company. In 1768 it was taken by a detachment of Spanish troops. In 1804 it was purchased by the United States with the whole country west of the Mississippi, at which time its population was 1,500, and its yearly fur trade amounted to over \$200,000. In 1820 its population was less than 5,000. It was chartered as a city in 1822. Its first newspaper was started in 1808, and its first bank in 1816. Cholera ap-

peared in 1832 and again in 1849, from which the city suffered much. The first railroad commenced its business in 1853. A large portion of the town was destroyed by fire in 1849; after this substantial buildings were erected from stone quarried from the bank of the river. St. Louis, under a special act of the Legislature, is exempt from county government, and exists entirely distinct as a municipality. St. Louis County adjoins the city. The latter is regularly built, and has fine streets which cross at right angles, and extends about 14 miles along the river. As a commercial and industrial centre St. Louis ranks among the most important cities of the Union. It is only exceeded by New York and Philadelphia in the number and capital employed in its manufactures. It is the centre of one of the finest agricultural districts

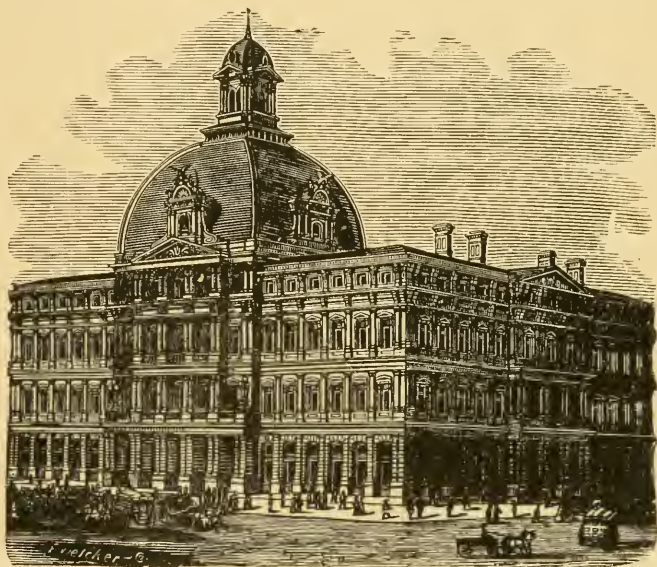


THE MERCANTILE LIBRARY.

in this country, for which it not only affords an outlet, but is also a centre of supply. The Mississippi, with its great tributaries, affords many thousands of miles of navigable water, while nearly thirty railroads and their numerous connections, place it in communication with all parts of the country. All these railroads, except one, centre in the same depot. In

the older portions of the city near the river, some of the streets are narrow and crooked. The principal streets are Fourth Street, Grand Avenue, Olive Street, Main Street, and Second Street. The principal retail stores are on Fourth Street, which is the grand promenade. The finest residences are on Grand Avenue, Lucas Place, Pine, Locust, and Olive Streets. There are two fine boulevards for driving in the western part of the city. It contains nearly 500 miles of paved streets and alleys. The total area of square miles covered by the city is $61\frac{1}{2}$. The numerous public parks, which are very beautiful, cover 2,500 acres. In addition to these there are many fine public squares. The Fair Grounds contain halls of mechanical and industrial exhibits, a zoölogical garden, claimed to be the most complete in the world, and an amphitheatre with seats for 40,000 people. The annual fairs are held in October.

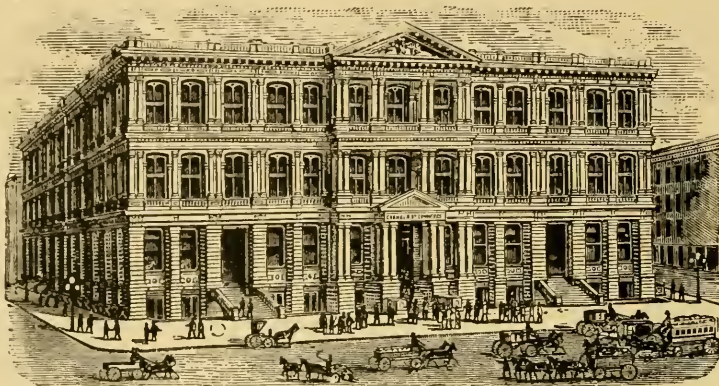
St. Louis has two of the finest cemeteries in the country, beautifully laid out and adorned with trees and shrubbery. It has a vast amount of manufactures, including very extensive flour-mills, sugar refineries, tobacco, whisky, hemp, bale rope and bagging, oils and chemicals, pork, beef, lard, and ham. Packing is done on a very extensive scale, and employs an immense capital, and is only exceeded by the amount invested in the manufacture of iron. The best flour produced in the world is made in St. Louis, and is largely shipped to Europe; the production is about 2,500,000 barrels annually. The number of hogs packed annually is about 600,000. The cotton trade amounts annually to about 500,000 bales. The machine-shops, linseed-oil factories, provision packing-houses, and iron foundries are very extensive. The annual products of the factories are valued at nearly \$275,000,000. The fur trade of America centres in St. Louis, and the traffic in agricultural produce is simply enormous, while in the manufacture of flour it stands unrivalled, and competes successfully with the markets of Europe; it is also celebrated for its unsurpassable lager.



THE NEW POST-OFFICE.

Nearly 500 vessels belong to the port, with an aggregate tonnage of nearly 200,000. There are 30 banks, 35 insurance companies, a chamber of commerce, a merchants' exchange, a mechanics' and manufacturers' exchange, a board of trade, a cotton exchange, and a mining exchange. The principal public buildings are the City Hall, the new Post-office, and Custom-house, which contains the United States Court Rooms, and cost about \$5,000,000. The Court-house occupies an entire square. The Great Exposition and Music Hall, is a building pronounced by all who have seen it to be far superior to anything of the kind in this country. Other buildings worthy of note are the Masonic Temple, the Columbia Life Insurance building, and the Mer-

cantile Library, with about 65,000 volumes. About 170 churches, mostly of fine architectural appearance, adorn the city. Among the more imposing structures are the Roman Catholic Cathedral, Christ Church (Episcopal), and



CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

the First Presbyterian Church. The city contains some of the finest hotels in the country, among which are the Southern, the Lindell, the Laclede, and the old Planters'. A fire in 1877 destroyed the Southern Hotel, which was



SOUTHERN HOTEL.

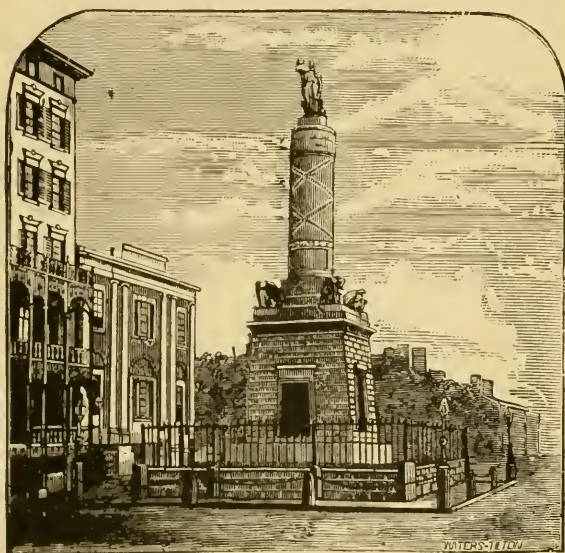
one of the largest and finest in the city. It has been rebuilt, and now occupies twice the space it first covered. The charitable institutions are very numerous, including hospitals, asylums, and homes. The Institution for the

Blind, which is controlled by the State, has facilities for 200 pupils, and teaches many industries. The Convent of the Good Shepherd is for the reformation of fallen women. There are also the Deaf and Dumb Asylum, St. Luke's Hospital, the St. Louis Hospital, the Emigrants' Home, the Widows' and Infants' Asylum, and the Insane Asylum. There are 108 public school buildings, occupied by over 55,000 children during the day, and 6,000 pupils at night. The Washington University includes, in addition to the college proper, the Polytechnic Institute, the Marcy Institute for the Education of Women, the School of Fine Arts, the Manual Training School, and the Law School. The Concordia Institute (which is German Lutheran) includes a theological college. The Catholics have over 100 parochial, private, and convent schools, among which are the Academies of Loretto, the Visitation, and Sacred Heart, the Ursuline Convent, and St. Louis University. The latter is under the control of the Society of Jesus, and has a large and valuable library and museum. Prominent among the other Catholic institutions is the College of the Christian Brothers. There are several theatres and places of amusement, and a fine opera house. The assessed value of real and personal property was (1889) \$220,000,000. Population: in 1820, 4,590; 1860, 151,780; 1870, 310,864; 1880, 350,522; in 1889 was 450,000.



CITY OF BALTIMORE.

BALTIMORE is a magnificent city in Maryland. It is situated 200 miles from the Atlantic, and is considered one of the three great seaports of the East; the bay is large enough and of a sufficient depth to accommodate the largest ships, and the channels in the river have been dredged to a depth of 24 feet and a width of nearly 400 feet. The city has many advantages, especially in location, as it is situated at the most northerly extremity of the Chesapeake Bay, into which numerous rivers flow



BATTLE MONUMENT, BALTIMORE.

after passing through the fertile districts of Maryland and Virginia. The city was founded in 1729. In January, 1730, a small town was located north of Jones' Falls, and named Baltimore, in honor of Calvert, Lord Baltimore. At the same period William Fell, ship-builder, settled at Fell's Point, and two years later another town was projected and named after David Jones. The town was joined to Baltimore in 1745, dropping its name. By successive unions

these little settlements passed into Baltimore, and in 1752 the future city had about two dozen houses and 200 inhabitants. In 1767 Baltimore was made the county seat. In 1773 the first theatre, newspaper, and stage line to New York and Philadelphia were established. The city is divided into two nearly equal parts by "Jones' Falls," a rapid stream, which, though troublesome from its floods, and expensive from its bridges, supplies immense water-power, and an abundance of pure water for domestic use. In 1776 the Continental Congress met in Baltimore in quarters thus described by John Adams: "The congress sit in the last house at the west end of Market Street, on the south side of the street, in a long chamber, with two fire-places, two

large closets and two doors. The house belongs to a Quaker, who built it for a tavern." Though Maryland was originally a Roman Catholic colony, there came to Baltimore, after the Revolution, a number of enterprising Scotch-Irish Protestants, whose energy and means were of great value to the city. In 1789 the course of Jones' Falls was changed, and the original bed filled in. In 1792 there was an accession to the population of many refugees from San Domingo. By 1796 Baltimore was made a city. Baltimore is defended by Fort McHenry. It was during an unsuccessful bombardment of this fort by the British fleet, in 1814, that Francis Scott Key, an American prisoner on one of the English ships, composed the celebrated "Star-Spangled Banner." During the Civil War, a portion of the 6th Mass. and 7th Penn. regiments were mobbed while passing through the city, and in the contest several citizens and soldiers were killed. No more troops were sent through Baltimore until the city was put under military rule. Baltimore is on undulating ground, and it has more than 200 churches, three universities, and a number of colleges. Among the commemorative structures which have gained for Baltimore the name of the "Monumental City," the most interesting is an elegant obelisk, erected in 1815 to the memory of those who had fallen in defending the town against the British. The Roman Catholic Cathedral takes the lead among the ecclesiastical edifices of Baltimore. It is a massive building of granite, being 190 feet long, 177 broad, and 127 high; and besides one of the largest organs in the United States, it contains two beautiful paintings, presented by Louis XVI. and Charles X. of France.

Baltimore's water communications are of great importance; the James River affords communication with Richmond, Petersburg, and Lynchburg, and the waters of the bay with Norfolk; by canal, with New York and Philadelphia; by the Potomac River, with Washington; by canal from the latter place to Cumberland, the district in which the collieries of the State are located. Along these coasts are numerous thriving towns and many well-tilled farms, the latter sending to her docks at times over 100,000 bushels of grain a day. The city is much nearer to the interior of the country than most of the large cities on the Atlantic Coast. Her position at the head of the Chesapeake, enables her to convey freight by water, which is a greater distance, much cheaper than by other transportation. Her immediate vicinity to the coal regions enables steamers to get their supply of this article at less than half the price they could get it in New York or Boston. Steamers crossing the Atlantic can save nearly \$2,000 in this way on a single trip, as

they generally use from 800 to 1,000 tons of coal. This probably explains why Baltimore is growing in favor as the great outlet of the West as well as of the interior, and as a distributing emporium of imports for the same localities. The vessels belonging to the port number nearly 2,000; tonnage, about 150,000. About 1,200 foreign ships, 150 foreign ocean steamers, and 400 American ships, engaged in foreign trade, enter the port annually. There are lines to various parts of Europe. The city has 15 national banks, with an aggregate capital of nearly \$12,000,000. There are also several private banks of a substantial character. It is one of the greatest flour markets in the world. The trade in oysters is enormous. About 12,000 men are employed in packing and handling oysters. One house puts up over 50,000 cans of raw oysters daily; and there are nearly 50 large establishments exclusively engaged in packing. Another house puts up over 35,000 cans of cooked oysters daily. Nearly 100 smaller concerns are engaged in opening oysters. After the oysters are all canned each year, the canning of fruits and vegetables—which is conducted very extensively—is commenced, of which over 25,000,000 cans are packed annually and sent to all parts of the civilized world, even to Hindostan, China, and Japan. In the coffee trade Baltimore is only second to New York, the sales amounting to nearly 500,000 bags annually; the bulk of this is imported from Brazil.

Baltimore is one of the great centres of the coal trade; over 50,000 tons are exported annually. There are about 20 mills engaged in the manufacture of cotton (shirtings, cotton duck, and sheetings), and it has been estimated that 80 per cent. of the cotton duck produced on the globe is made in these mills. Nearly 100,000 bales of raw cotton are exported annually. The cattle trade of Baltimore is conducted on a very extensive scale, as is also its lumber trade, about 40 large houses being engaged in the latter industry. The export trade in lumber is at the present time nearly five million feet annually, while about sixty million feet of yellow pine are used annually for making packing-boxes. The city is the nearest seaport to the oil regions, and has great facilities for refining petroleum. There are many large refineries. The export trade in oil is very large, amounting at times to 50,000,000 gallons annually. Baltimore is also prominent in exporting tobacco. The largest iron rolling mills in the United States are the Abbot Works. The city is surrounded by iron-ore beds. One railroad iron mill can turn out over 40,000 tons of finished rails annually. The industry in copper goods is very extensive, and is considered equal to any on the coast. A very extensive business

is done in marine and stationary steam-engines, mill-gearing, water-wheels, pulleys and shafting, hollow ware, stones, iron work, agricultural implements, etc.

Baltimore has gained a great reputation for its preparation of lard, of which it exports great quantities. Large quantities of provisions from the interior are exported to foreign ports. The shoe and leather trade is of great importance, amounting to over \$25,000,000 annually. Much of the leather is exported to England and Germany. There is also a large trade in sugar and molasses. Other industries are: ship-building, woolen goods, pottery, sugar refining, distilling, tanning, saddlery, etc. About 10,000,000 bricks are made and sold annually.

Baltimore possesses many charitable and beneficial institutions, among which are the Maryland Institution for the Blind; the Sheppard Asylum for the Insane, endowed with \$1,000,000 by Moses Sheppard; the Peabody Institution, which received over \$1,000,000 from George Peabody; and the Hopkins Hospital, endowed with \$2,000,000 by Johns Hopkins. The Johns Hopkins University is also magnificently endowed, giving opportunity for post-graduate study and advanced scientific research. There are about 125 public schools, with 100,000 average attendance. The finest building in Baltimore is the new City Hall, occupying an entire square of more than half an acre, 355 feet long, which cost \$2,600,000. The Peabody Institute was incorporated in 1857. It contains a library of 56,000 volumes, and halls for lectures, etc. The Custom-house is a fine edifice, 225 by 141 feet. On the four sides are colonnades, each column being a single block of Italian marble. The new Pratt Library seems to meet a "long-felt want." Thus far about 1,600 books a day have been taken out. It comprises 40,000 volumes, distributed from one central point and five branches.

Baltimore is supplied with water from Lake Roland, with a capacity of 500,000,000 gallons, and by the new system of water works, the grandest in the world, 200,000,000 gallons per day; quantity used, 27,000,000 per day. The city can boast of the noblest forest park in the United States. "Druid Hill" is an old forest which was previously the private park of a fine estate. It contains over 600 acres, acquired by the city in 1860. It adds much to the beauty of the city, and has many picturesque walks and drives. The population in 1800 was 25,514; in 1830, 80,620; in 1840, 102,513; in 1850, 169,547; in 1870, 267,354; in 1880, 332,190; in 1889, 416,805.

CITY OF LOUISVILLE.



LOUISVILLE, the chief city of Kentucky, is situated on the Ohio River, 130 miles below Cincinnati. On account of rapids in the river, which here has a fall of 27 feet and affords an excellent water power, it is known as the "Falls City." Steamers handled by skilled pilots pass through the rapids at high water, but at other times pass through an extensive canal which is being widened to accommodate increasing traffic.

Louisville is often called the city of homes. Population increased from 123,645 in 1880 to 200,000 in 1889. Among the many fine structures for



A SCENE ON THE RIVER FRONT AFTER THE WAR.

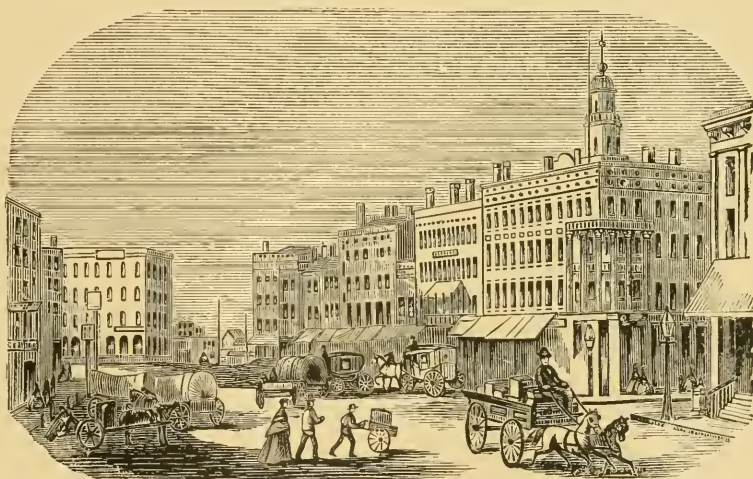
which the city is noted are the custom house, city and county buildings, Commercial Club building, the public library building of Kentucky, and the Masonic Widows' and Orphans' Home. It also contains many hospitals, asylums, educational institutions, and about 125 churches. The Cave Hill Cemetery, lying back of the city, is one of the most beautiful burial places in the West.

Louisville is the largest market in the world for leaf tobacco and for whiskey, and is also a great centre of the pork-packing industry. Among the important manufactures are agricultural implements, leather, cement, iron piping, and furniture. A number of railroads connect the city with the great Northern and Southern railroad systems. The death rate per thousand inhabitants is less than that of any other city of its size in the Union.

CITY OF CLEVELAND.



CLEVELAND, next to Cincinnati, is the most commercial city in Ohio, and the capital of Cuyahoga County. It is situated on the southern shore of Lake Erie, at the mouth of the Cuyahoga River. The harbor is one of the best on the coast, and has been rendered still more available by extending a pier on either side into deeper water. By means of this secure and commodious haven, Cleveland, with the aid of artificial works in both directions, has navigable communications with the Atlantic Ocean on the one hand, and with the head of Lake Superior on the other. It is celebrated for its ship-building, and is becoming rapidly more and more important for its manufactures.



A STREET SCENE BEFORE THE WAR.

Magnificent works were erected at a cost of about \$800,000, to supply the city with water from Lake Erie; this is obtained by means of a tunnel under the lake. The city has grown to its present dimensions from a small town, which was settled in 1796 by General Moses Cleaveland, one of the directors of the Connecticut Land Company, after whom it was named. It is the chief port of the "Western Reserve." It is divided into two parts, connected with each other by bridges crossing the Cuyahoga River, which here empties into the lake. One of the bridges is 2,000 feet in length, and built of solid masonry, costing \$2,500,000.

The principal public buildings are of stone, and present a fine appearance. The United States building contains the Custom-house, Post-office, and rooms for the Federal Courts. The County Court-house and City Hall occupy conspicuous places, and are well adapted to their several uses. The

House of Correction cost \$170,000. The Cleveland Medical College is an imposing structure. The Union Railway Station is a massive structure of stone. The high-schools and several of the churches are very handsome structures. There is also a public library, and several other libraries. There are numerous hospitals, orphan asylums, and other charitable institutions, besides two convents, a Young Men's Christian Association, a seminary for women and a business college. The Catholic people have 11 academies and schools. The public schools are numerous and well organized. The State Law College has a fine library and many students. The Cleveland Medical College was founded in 1843, and the Homœopathic Medical College in 1849.

Cleveland has over 160 churches, many large insurance companies, several fine markets, and 33 hotels. It is the centre of many great railroads, and the Ohio Canal connects Lake Erie at this point with the Ohio River. It was this canal, completed in 1834, that first gave a great impetus to the commerce of the city. Numerous steamers ply between Cleveland and all other ports on the lake. The manufacturing industries of the city are varied and extensive, and increasing with great rapidity. They embrace iron, coal, refined petroleum, nail manufactories, copper smelting, sulphuric acid, wooden ware, agricultural implements, sewing-machines, railroad cars, marble, white lead, etc. The population was in 1830, 1,000; 1850, 17,034; 1870, 93,018; 1880, 159,404; 1886, 227,000; 1889, 250,000.

The city is lighted by electric lights, which are elevated to a great height. There are many beautiful cemeteries. The finest part of the city is on a sandy bluff on the east side of the river, from 60 to 150 feet above the lake. The city is laid out mostly in squares, the principal streets being from 80 to 120 feet wide, and one having a width of 132 feet. Shade trees are so abundant that the place is properly called the "Forest City." Euclid Avenue, lined with elegant private residences, each of which is surrounded with ample grounds, is acknowledged to be the handsomest street in the country. Superior Street, having a width of 132 feet, is occupied by the banks and the principal retail stores. Monumental Park, in the centre of the city, with an area of ten acres, as originally laid out, is now crossed by streets at right angles, and so divided into four smaller squares, beautifully shaded and carefully kept. In one of these squares is a handsome fountain, in another a pool and a cascade, and a statue of Commodore Perry, the hero of the battle of Lake Erie, erected in 1860 at a cost of \$8,000. West of the river is another finely shaded park called the "Circle," with a beautiful fountain in the centre.

CITY OF INDIANAPOLIS.



INDIANAPOLIS, the capital and largest city of Indiana, is built on the west fork of White River, near the centre of the State, 100 miles northwest of Cincinnati. It is situated in the vicinity of an extensive coal region. Its manufactures and commerce are very important and extensive. Thirteen lines of railroad connect the city with all parts of the country. It is a regularly built and beautiful city, with a handsome State-house, court-house, jail, and State asylums for the blind, deaf and dumb, and insane; has a university, two female colleges, and eight banks.

Indianapolis became the seat of government in 1820, and in 1824 became the capital of the State. The city was incorporated in 1836. The streets are broad, and run at right angles. Nine bridges cross the river, three of which are for railroads. There are numerous street railroads, including a belt-line around the city. Seven parks, one of which contains over 100 acres, add much to the beauty of the city.

Pork-packing is carried on extensively. There are a number of large flour-mills, grain elevators, iron rolling-mills, foundries, machine-shops, car works, sewing-machine shops, and factories for the manufacture of agricultural implements, furniture, pianos, organs, carriages, cotton and woolen goods, etc., etc. There are nearly 50 incorporated manufacturing institutions, with a large aggregate capital. About 90 churches adorn the city; also a Roman Catholic theological seminary, an art school, a city hospital, an academy of music, a State library with 25,000 volumes, and a free city library with about 20,000 volumes. The new State House cost \$2,000,000. The public schools are mainly supported by the State school fund of \$8,000,000. The Court-house is a splendid structure. Among the other fine buildings may be mentioned the Exposition Building, the Chamber of Commerce, the Union Depot, the Masonic and Odd Fellows' Halls, the United States Arsenal, and numerous fine, massive blocks of buildings. The best private residences are surrounded by fine lawns and gardens. This city was the home of the late Vice-President Hendricks.

Indiana has no mountains, and over two-thirds of its surface is level or undulating. It has but one port, Michigan City, on Lake Michigan, and no direct foreign commerce. Its internal trade is of vast extent, its rivers, canals, and railroads being numerous and of great importance. The population of Indianapolis in 1840 was 2,692; in 1870, 48,244; in 1880, 76,200; and in 1889 125,000.

CITY OF CINCINNATI.



CINCINNATI is the chief commercial city of Ohio; it is situated on the north or right bank of the Ohio River, 120 miles from Columbus, the capital of the State; 458 miles below Pittsburgh, where the Ohio is formed by the junction of the Monongahela and Alleghany Rivers, and 500 miles above the junction of the Ohio and the Mississippi Rivers. It is 340 miles east of St. Louis, 280 miles southeast of Chicago, and 610 miles from Washington. On the opposite side of the Ohio, in Kentucky, are two cities—Covington, which is the most important, has a population of 28,542; and Newport with a population of 18,412. Cincinnati, which is the county seat of Hamilton County, has communications by numerous steam ferries besides two bridges, with these cities. The city occupies 27 square miles, and extends along the river 10 miles, and is about 3 miles wide. It has a fine, substantial appearance, and is noted for the architectural beauty of its public buildings. Its fine broad streets and avenues remind one of Philadelphia; they are well paved, and in some instances lined with shade trees. The principal part of the city lies between Deer Creek on the east and Mill Creek on the west, which are nearly three miles apart where they flow into the Ohio. A few settlers from New Jersey first located on this site in 1789. In 1800 the population only amounted to 750; its development being greatly retarded by the Indians, who rendered navigation on the Ohio very dangerous.

Its ecclesiastical, literary and commercial edifices are as numerous as befits the acknowledged Queen of the West. The city occupies chiefly two terraces, which are elevated respectively 50 and 108 feet above the level of the river. The water of the Ohio has been lifted up into an immense reservoir, at an expense of about \$1,800,000. A large suspension bridge, 100 feet above low water, connects the city with Covington, Ky. Its entire length is 2,252 feet; the principal span is 1,057 feet; this was designed by John A. Roebling, and cost nearly \$2,000,000; it was completed in 1867. Another bridge connects the city with Newport, Ky.

Cincinnati is the centre of a great network of railroads, and is connected with a vast region of territory by the Ohio and Mississippi and their connections: while the Miami Canal connects it with Lake Erie, and a branch connects the Miami with the Wabash and Erie Canal, which is the longest canal

in the Union (374 miles); this canal extends from Toledo to Evansville, Ind., on the Ohio River.

The city was incorporated in 1814, and since that time has made steady progress. Thirteen companies use seven railroads, which enter the city; two others have their terminus at Covington, on the other side of the river. Nearly 400 passenger and freight trains arrive and leave daily. There are four depots near the river in different parts of the city. Nearly twenty lines



THIRD STREET.

of street railroads cross the city in all directions. An incline steam-passenger railway affords communication with the top of the adjacent hills. Vineyards and gardens abound in the suburbs.

Previous to and during the Civil War the slavery question created intense excitement. Social and vast commercial relations of the city with the South brought it in sympathy with the Slave States. Several attempts were made to establish an anti-slavery paper in the city, but without success, as it was always destroyed by a mob, who were sustained by prominent citizens; and

in 1862, when a Confederate force was expected to attack the city, it was found necessary to place it under martial law. Many of the leading families furnished men and money for the Southern cause; but the great masses of the people, especially the Germans, were patriotic, and identified themselves with the Union cause.

In the suburbs of the city are many fine, costly residences, surrounded with beautiful lawns, laid out with shrubs and trees. The scenery in the vicinity of the city is very attractive; there are numerous parks and public grounds. Among the public buildings are the United States Government building, containing the Custom-house, Post-office, Court-rooms, etc. The County Court-house cost nearly \$500,000, and with the County Jail occupies an entire square. The City Hospital occupies a square, containing nearly four acres; the buildings and land are valued at \$1,000,000. The Public Library cost about \$700,000, which was raised by taxation. Pike's Opera House is a very imposing edifice, 134 by 170 feet. The Masonic Temple is 195 by 100 feet, and 4 stories high. Mozart's Hall has seating accommodations for 3,000 people. Longview Asylum for the Insane, situated outside of the city, is 612 feet long; the property is valued at over \$1,000,000. There are also St. Xavier's College, which is governed by the Jesuits; Lane Theological Seminary (Presbyterian), organized in 1829, with an endowment of \$200,000. The Catholics support over 100 parochial schools. There are in all 6 medical colleges, 5 literary colleges, one college of dentistry, several commercial colleges, a university, and a law school. In 1842 the Wesleyan College for women was founded. There are nearly 200 churches; the finest of which is St. Peter's Cathedral (Catholic); it is 180 by 90 feet, with a fine stone spire 224 feet high. The Tyler-Davidson Fountain is a fine work of art; it cost \$200,000, and was presented to the city in 1871.

Wine is made in the neighborhood to a great extent. The city itself also is largely engaged in a variety of important manufactures, hundreds of steam-engines being employed in the different establishments. The manufactories include iron-foundries, rolling-mills, lard, oil, and stearine factories; and countless works connected with flour, clothing, furniture, paper, printing, tobacco, soap, candles, hats, etc. The total value of manufactured goods in one year amounted to nearly \$170,000,000. The Board of Trade has nearly 1,000 members. The Merchants' Exchange and Chamber of Commerce has about 1,200 members. Six National banks have a capital of nearly \$5,000,000, and 17 other banks nearly \$3,000,000. An annual Industrial Exhibition has

been held in Cincinnati in the fall of each year since 1871; the buildings occupy $3\frac{1}{2}$ acres of ground.

A canal completed in 1872 around the falls of the Ohio, at Louisville, enables the largest steamboats on the Mississippi to reach Cincinnati. The imports in one year amounted to \$223,237,157, and exports \$186,209,646. By act of Congress in 1870, foreign merchandise may arrive in Cincinnati without appraisement or payment of duties at any port where it may first arrive.



FOURTH STREET.

At one time Cincinnati was the great centre in the United States for the pork trade, but since 1863 Chicago has held first rank. At the present time Cincinnati has about 60 establishments for the slaughtering of swine and the packing of pork; the yards for the reception of live hogs occupy about 60 acres. In one year 793,863 hogs, 142,815 cattle, and 274,027 sheep were received.

The celebrated lager-beer of Cincinnati has gained a reputation, not only in the United States, but abroad. The malt liquors manufactured in one

year amounted to nearly 6,000,000 barrels, which consumed about 1,500,000 bushels of malt, 1,250,000 pounds of hops, 700,000 pounds of rice, over 6,000,000 bushels of coal, over 3,500,000 bushels of coke, and used up 60,000 tons of ice. Whisky is made on a very extensive scale; the returns of rectified spirits for one year amount to nearly 13,000,000 gallons.

The tobacco and cigar trade is of great extent and value. In one year the sales of tobacco amounted to over 40,000 hogsheads; and the number of cigars made in Cincinnati, Covington, and Newport was over 100,000,000. Nearly 2,000,000 cigarettes were made in the same year; and the production of fine-cut (chewing) and plug tobacco was nearly 5,000,000 pounds; while the smoking tobacco amounted to over 2,000,000 pounds.

Fine candles are made in Cincinnati, and are largely disposed of in foreign countries; the shipments for one year were nearly 250,000 boxes. The manufacture of soap is very extensive; the total shipments in one year amounted to over 366,000 boxes. It was here that soap made from cotton-seed oil was first manufactured. The manufacture of starch has gained for the city a great reputation; the shipments for one year amounted to nearly 5,000,000 boxes; it is sold not only in the United States, but in nearly all parts of the world, including Mexico and South America. Furniture forms an important part of the manufactures. The manufacture of boots and shoes is constantly increasing, and the jobbing trade in this line is very extensive; the shipments in one year amounted to about 100,000 cases.

Cincinnati is one of the great grain warehouses for the South; the receipts for one year amounted to about 12,000,000 bushels. Boat-building, including steamboats and ferry-boats, gives employment to a large number of workmen.

The population in 1820 was 9,602; in 1840, 46,338; in 1850, 115,438; in 1860, 161,000; in 1870, 216,289; in 1880, 255,708; in 1889, 330,000.



CITY OF MILWAUKEE.



MILWAUKEE is the most important city and port of entry of Wisconsin. It is situated on the western shore of Lake Michigan, at the mouth of the Milwaukee River, which enters the lake from the north, and flows through the city. The Menomonee River joins the Milwaukee near its mouth. The bay is 6 miles long by 3 miles wide. The city is 84 miles north by west of Chicago, and 87 miles east of Madison, which is the capital of the State. The harbor is one of the best on the lakes, and has been much improved by the Government. The city is very handsome, and is built of yellow or cream-colored bricks made in the vicinity, and from which it has derived the name of the "Cream City of the Lakes." The streets are regular, the centre and most level parts of the city being devoted to business. The residences crown a high bluff, and give the



MILWAUKEE IN 1860.

city a very picturesque appearance when viewed from the lake. Its first white settler was a Frenchman, whose name was Juneau, who located there in 1818, and engaged in the fur trade, and finally became Mayor of the city, which was incorporated in 1846. The city has a fine sewerage system, and is furnished by the lake with water.

It is connected with all parts of the country by railroads. In 1870, Milwaukee claimed the rank of fourth city in the Union in marine commerce. This position it has since lost by the rapid and extraordinary development of other cities. Copper and iron mines within 50 miles of the city have done much towards making her a great manufacturing centre.

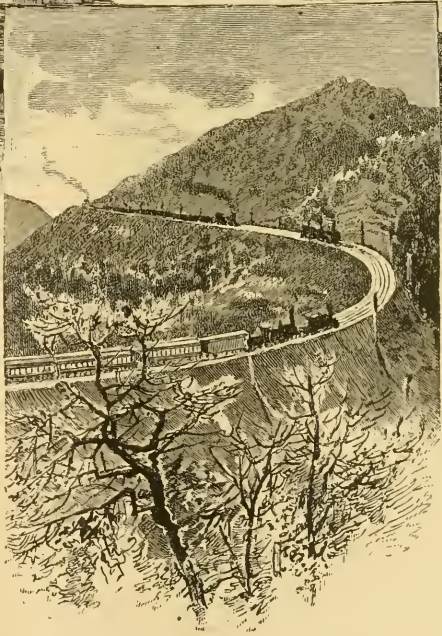
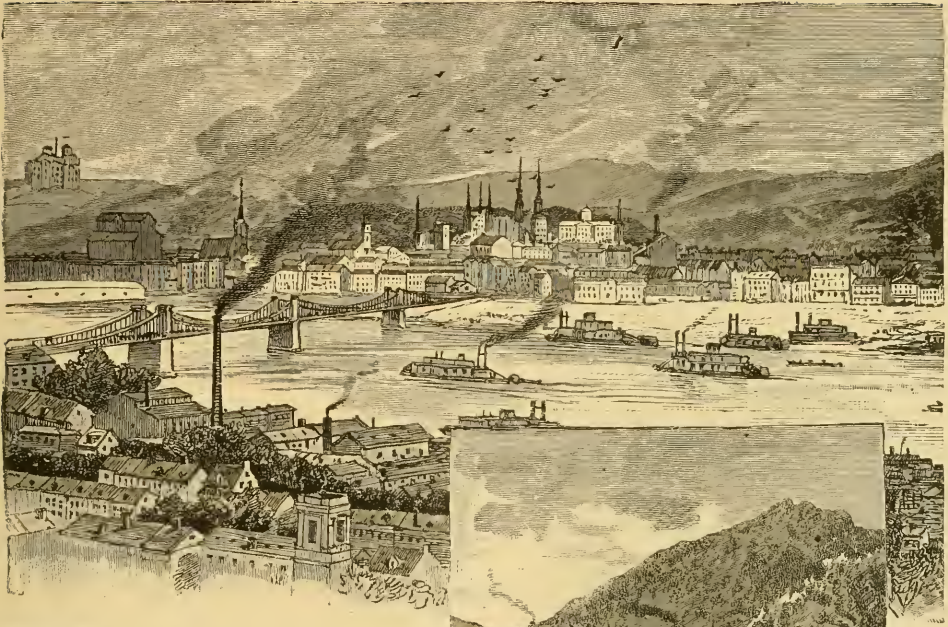
Among the fine public buildings are the Post-office and Custom-house, which is built with marble, and in which are the United States Courts. The County Court-house was erected at a cost of more than \$400,000. The receipts and shipments by rail and water are immense and of great value. The most important items of merchandise are wheat and flour. The immense agricultural products of the three great States of Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota are shipped from its port. Pork-packing is conducted on a very extensive scale, and the city is celebrated for its lager-beer, which finds a market in nearly all parts of the Union. About \$4,000,000 is invested in this branch of industry.

There are vast iron and rolling mills, which employ nearly 3,000 men, and have a capital of nearly \$5,000,000. There are six immense elevators, with a total capacity of nearly 6,000,000 bushels, one of which is claimed to be the largest in the Union, having a capacity of 1,500,000 bushels. One of the largest flour-mills has a daily capacity of 1,000 barrels. The leather factories are very extensive, the total capital being nearly \$2,000,000. Among the goods manufactured are the following: agricultural implements, machinery, pig-iron, iron castings, steam-boilers, car wheels, woolen cloth, carriages, wagons, barrels, furniture, sashes and blinds, boots and shoes, tobacco and cigars, white lead, paper, soap and candles, iron castings, leather, malt, high-wines, brooms, etc.

It has a large number of educational institutions, comprising academies, public and private schools, and an Industrial School, several orphan asylums and hospitals, a College for Women, a monastery and Franciscan College, a public art gallery, a public library, and a German library and public museum. There are 75 churches, 2 cathedrals (1 Episcopal and 1 Catholic), about 20 banks, several insurance companies and theatres. The Government asylum for invalid soldiers is situated two or three miles from the city.

The population, which largely consists of Germans and other nationalities, was, in 1860, 45,000; in 1870, 71,000; in 1880, 115,570; and in 1889, 210,000.

CITY OF PITTSBURGH.

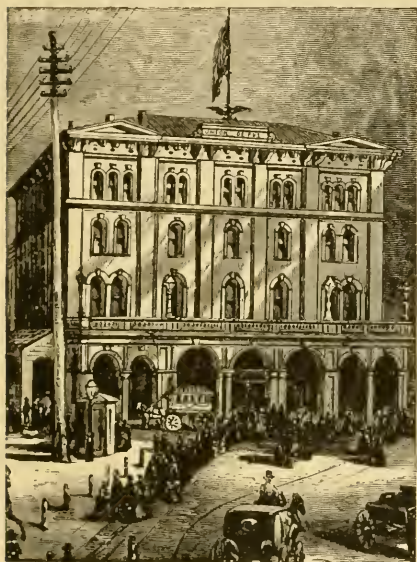


HORSESHOE CURVE AND PITTSBURGH, PENN.

PITTSBURGH is the second city in population and importance in Pennsylvania, a port of entry, and the county seat of Allegheny County. It is situated at the junction of the Monongahela and Allegheny Rivers, where they form the Ohio, which at this point is a quarter of a mile wide. The city is 356 miles from Philadelphia, 245 miles from Harrisburgh, which is the capital of the State, and 227 miles from Washington.

The distance from New Orleans by the river is 2,040 miles. Some of the richest deposits of coal and iron in America are to be found in the vicinity. The city has nearly 200 iron establishments, about 75 iron foundries, 50 iron and steel works, and over 600

furnaces. There are vast machine-shops; the manufacture of steam boilers, engines, etc., is very extensive. There are about 56 glass manufacturing establishments, the products of which are about \$12,000,000 annually. The trade in crude and refined oil is enormous; nearly 3,000,000 barrels of crude oil are received annually, and about 2,500,000 barrels of refined oil shipped. Large quantities of coke are purchased, averaging more than 1,000,000 tons a year. The iron manufactures amount annually to about \$50,000,000; the total amount of pig metal consumed is about 7,000,000 tons annually, being nearly one-quarter of the total produced in the Union. There are large copper-smelting works, 22 rolling-mills, numerous cotton-mills and white lead



THE OLD UNION DEPOT.

Destroyed by Fire during the Riots of 1877.

factories. The best qualities of English steel are surpassed by several large steel works, seven of which produce about 35,000 tons annually. The products of several copper manufacturing establishments amount to \$4,000,000 annually. Vast quantities of coal are produced in nearly 200 collieries in the neighborhood of the city.

Pittsburgh is the great manufacturing city of America. The immense foundries and factories fill the air with smoke, and hence it has derived the names of "the Smoky City," and "the Iron City." It has often been compared to Birmingham, England. The first glass manufactured

in Pittsburgh was in 1796. The first attempt at making steel was in 1828, and for several years only the lowest grade was produced. The manufacture of cast steel for edge-tools was commenced in 1860. The first rolling-mill was built in 1812, and the first iron foundry in 1804; from the latter cannon were cast and supplied for the fleet on Lake Erie and for the defence of New Orleans.

Pittsburgh occupies the site of the old French Fort Duquesne. In 1754 a portion of its present territory was occupied by the English, and a stockade fort was built at the confluence of the rivers. After many struggles with the French and Indians, in which the British General Braddock was defeated, it was finally taken by General Forbes in 1758, and a permanent foothold estab-

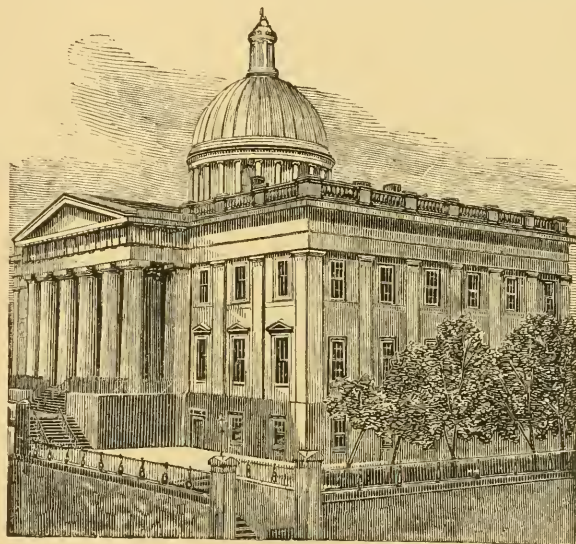
lished. The place became a permanent trading-post in 1759. A new fort was eventually erected, and named Fort Pitt, in honor of William Pitt, then Prime Minister of England, the name changing finally to Pittsburgh. In 1774 the place was surveyed and laid out by descendants of William Penn. It was incorporated as a city in 1816. At that time its limits were confined to a peninsula between the rivers; it now extends over the adjoining hills, and seven or eight miles up both rivers. In 1845 it was nearly destroyed by fire. Its appearance is that of a solid and substantial city. The eastern part is devoted to fine residences. Most of the streets are paved. Besides its vast manufacturing interests, Pittsburgh has a great traffic over the three rivers, which give it an outlet to the Mississippi River, its tributaries, and the Gulf coast, while canals connect it with Philadelphia, and, by way of Cleveland, with the lakes. It is a port of delivery in the New Orleans district.

Among the principal railroads are the Pennsylvania, the Alleghany Valley, and the Pittsburgh, Washington, and Baltimore, which connect Pittsburgh with nearly every part of Pennsylvania and the East. The Pittsburgh, Fort

Wayne, and Chicago Railroad and connecting lines give communication to the West and Northwest, while the Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, and St. Louis Railroad connects the South and Southwest.

The public buildings include a fine Court-house, the Western State Penitentiary, the United States Arsenal, etc. There are 50 banks and a large number of insurance companies; 75 schools, including a high-school. Among the colleges are the Western University of Pennsylvania and the Pittsburgh Female College (Methodist). There are over 40 newspapers, of which 10 are dailies; and 120 churches. Among the ecclesiastical buildings is a fine large Roman Catholic Cathedral.

Seven bridges span the Alleghany River, and not only connect Pittsburgh



THE OLD COURT-HOUSE. Destroyed by Fire in 1884.

with Alleghany City, but are practically continuous streets traversed by horse-cars. Five bridges span the Monongahela, and give an outlet to the suburbs of Pittsburgh in that direction. Large steamboats run on the Ohio from Pittsburgh to Cincinnati and many other points, and great facilities are afforded for the reception of mineral oil, iron, coal, lumber, etc., by the Monongahela and Alleghany Rivers. Over 200 large steamers belong to the port, and 600 or 700 barges, with a total tonnage of nearly 200,000.

The figures showing the production of pig-iron indicate that the Southern States are forging to the front, although Pennsylvania still holds an easy lead, having produced in 1885, 2,445,496 tons of the entire 4,529,869 tons produced in this country. Ohio comes next in the list of iron-producing States with 553,963 tons; Illinois third with 327,977 tons; and Alabama fourth with 227,438 tons. The next highest producing States are Virginia, Tennessee, New York, and Michigan, in the order named. While recognizing that the South is making rapid advances, Pennsylvania, with its abundant coal and its newly utilized store of natural gas, is sure, however, to be the great pig-iron centre for an indefinite period. The fuel and ore and the market are so conveniently near each other in the Keystone State that no probable competitors are seriously to be feared.

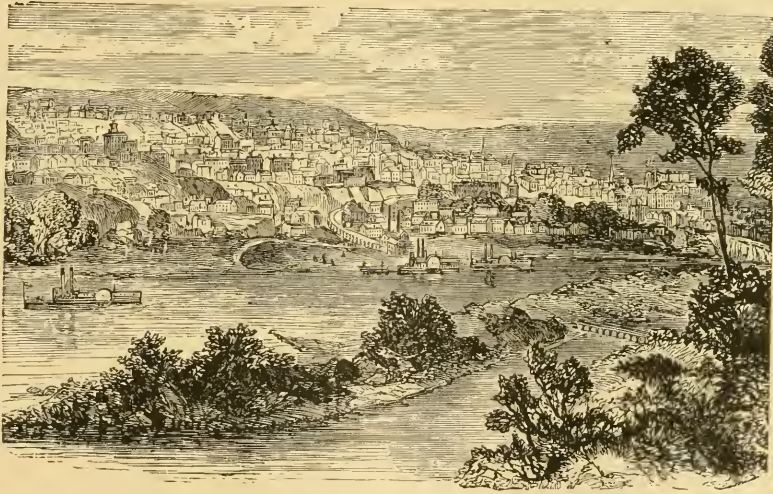
Pittsburgh has rapidly increased in population and manufactures. The majority of the population is of foreign birth; mostly Irish, German, and English. The population in 1788 was 480; in 1800, 1,560; in 1840, 21,000; in 1860, 79,000; in 1870, 121,799; in 1880, 156,389 (the annexation of adjoining boroughs caused much of this increase); in 1889, 230,000. The City of Alleghany, with its population of 110,000 in 1889, is on the other side of the river, and as it is in fact a portion of Pittsburgh, except in its municipal government, it should be added to these figures, making the total population of Pittsburgh in 1889, 340,000.



CITY OF ST. PAUL.



T. PAUL is the capital of Minnesota. It is a thriving commercial city and port of entry, situated on both banks of the Mississippi River, 9 miles east of Minneapolis, 400 miles northwest of Chicago, 2,080 miles from New Orleans, and 9 miles from the Falls of St. Anthony. Excellent springs of water abound in the hills near the city. It is the head of navigation for the large steamboats of the Lower Mississippi and its tributaries, and is 800 feet above the Gulf of Mexico. The City of St. Paul, standing at the navigable head of what the Indians fitly called, in their musical and



A VIEW OF ST. PAUL.

expressive tongue, the "Great River," has been fortunate in many things. Above them all, it is supremely fortunate in situation. A visitor needs only to go to the summit of either of the four principal bluffs upon which the city lies, and beyond which it is spreading itself so rapidly, to see the secret of that spell which its scenery and distant outlook communicate. Established in the midst of a territory dominated by prairies, it looks down upon a vast and beautiful landscape in a way that suggests the supremacy and lordliness of Rome. Its vistas are various from these lofty coigns of vantage, and each is a separate and individual picture. In 1846 the white people living on this

site consisted of ten persons. In 1841 a chapel was dedicated here to St. Paul by a Jesuit missionary, and from this it derived its name. The principal railroads are the Northern Pacific; St. Paul, Minneapolis, and Manitoba; Chicago, Milwaukee, and St. Paul; Chicago, Burlington, and Northern; Chicago, St. Paul, Minneapolis, and Omaha; St. Paul and Duluth; St. Paul and Northern Pacific; Wisconsin Central; Minneapolis and St. Louis; Chicago and Northwestern; and Minnesota and Northwestern.

The Custom-house and Post-office is a fine granite structure, which cost \$600,000. The State Capitol was erected at a cost of \$374,000. St. Paul has a fine court-house, several hotels and theatres, public libraries, with nearly 50,000 volumes, a number of daily and weekly newspapers, several of which are in the Swedish and German languages. It has a State Historical Society, an Academy of Natural Sciences, a State Reform School, various fine public schools, orphan asylums, Catholic parochial schools, a commercial and business college, a Home for the Friendless, and Magdalen reformatories, about 50 churches, and a fine cathedral. The city has very efficient fire and police departments, street railways, a Mayor and Council. It is connected with West St. Paul by two bridges across the Mississippi River. The boundaries of the city include West St. Paul since 1874. There are quarries in the vicinity from which limestone is taken for building purposes. Its water supply is derived from Lake Phalen, which is about three miles from the city. The public park, which is very beautiful, is on the shore of Lake Como, and contains nearly 300 acres. It has several grain elevators, numerous banks and insurance companies. The shipments of wheat amount to about 2,000,000 bushels annually, and flour 250,000 barrels. The manufactures consist of agricultural implements, machinery, furniture, ale and beer, carriages, boots and shoes, lumber, sash and blinds, doors, and blank books.

Six of the National banks have a capital of \$6,350,000. It is the centre of a large growing trade in flour, lumber, furs, machinery, etc., and has a very extensive wholesale trade. The growth of the city, like its twin sister, Minneapolis, has been very rapid. The banking capital of St. Paul exceeds that of all the rest of the State put together.

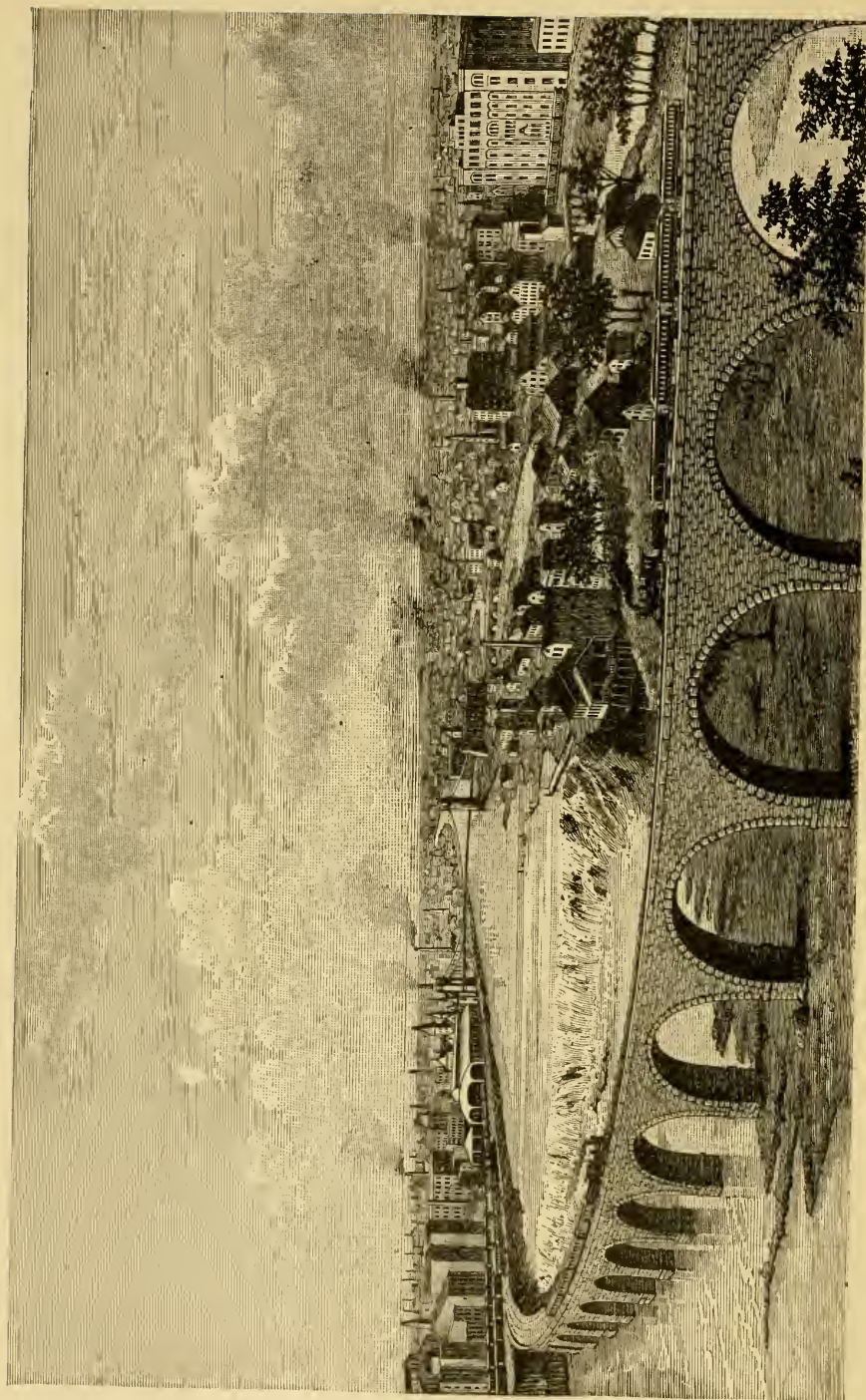
As a place of residence St. Paul is delightfully situated, and on a clear, bright day in spring, the view from the bridges which span the river is surpassingly beautiful. Up the river as far as the eye can reach, are green banks, with hills and plateaus crowned with fine residences and comfortable homes. The atmosphere of St. Paul is dry and pure, and remarkably invig-

orating, especially for those in poor health, or suffering from some pulmonary complaint. Though the thermometer shows a greater degree of cold in winter than is experienced in the New England or Atlantic States, yet it is not nearly as perceptible as in other sections where the "raw," damp days of winter penetrate through the thickest clothing. The average mean temperature for the nine years, including 1883, in the city, was 19° Fahrenheit for the winter months; for the summer months, 69° $80'$; and for the spring and fall months, 40° $30'$ and 45° $70'$ respectively.

Population: in 1860, 10,000; in 1870, 20,000; in 1880, 41,000; and in 1889, 200,000.



CONVENIENCES OF MODERN TRAVEL—A PALACE-CAR SMOKER OF TO-DAY.



MINNEAPOLIS, A VIEW FROM THE STONE ARCH BRIDGE OF THE ST. PAUL, MINNEAPOLIS, AND MANITOBA RAILROAD.

CITY OF MINNEAPOLIS.



MINNEAPOLIS is a city in Southeastern Minnesota, on the Mississippi River, situated at the Falls of St. Anthony, nine miles west of St. Paul. The surrounding country is noted for its picturesque beauty. The city is built on a fine broad plateau, seemingly specially designed by nature for a metropolis. The river makes a fall or descent of 50 feet within a mile, has a perpendicular descent of 18 feet, and has 135,000 horse-power at low-water mark. It is crossed by a fine suspension bridge built in 1876, and three other bridges. There are four fine lakes in the vicinity. Immense manufacturing establishments are conducted by means of water-power from the river. The value of the lumber sawed in one year amounted to \$3,000,000, and the flour made in one year amounted to nearly \$8,000,000. The wholesale grocery business amounts to nearly \$6,000,000 a year. An immense amount of grain is milled. Among the other important manufactures are iron, machinery, water-

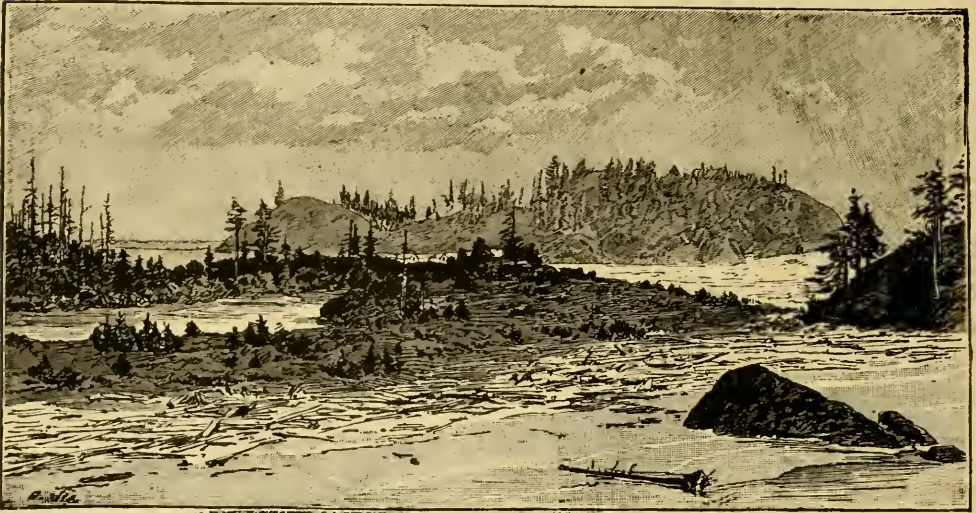


A GLIMPSE OF MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.

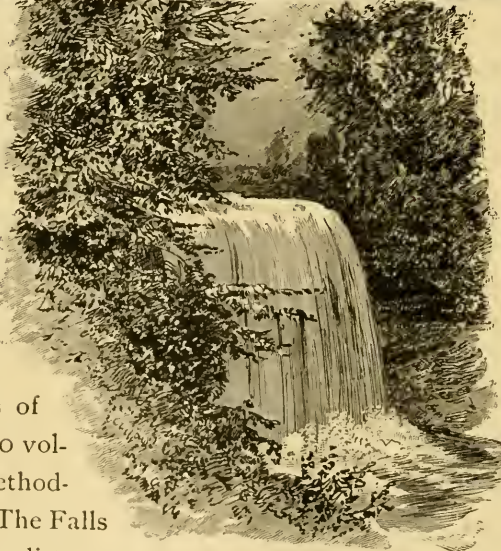
wheels, engines and boilers, agricultural implements, cotton and woolen goods, furniture, barrels, boots and shoes, paper, linseed oil, beer, sashes, doors, and blinds. Pork-packing is conducted on a very extensive scale; and there are numerous saw-mills. The wholesale trade is very important, and is constantly increasing. Minneapolis is regularly laid out with streets and avenues from 60 to 100 feet wide. The streets cross at right angles, and are shaded with fine trees. The city is ornamented by a series of beautiful parks, boulevards, and parkways, laid out and improved at an enormous expense. It is well sewered, and has a fine fire department and police force. Minneapolis is the great railroad centre of the Northwest. All the

roads of the Northwest, in fact, touch Minneapolis. It has a line of steamers to St. Cloud.

Among the public buildings are a Court-house, a City Hall erected in 1873,



an Academy
era-house.
The Athe-
of 15,000
lis is the seat
Minnesota
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library of
the Augs-
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library of 1,800 vol-
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newspapers. The Falls
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FALLS OF MINNEHAHA AND CAPE DIS-
APPOINTMENT, MINNEAPOLIS.

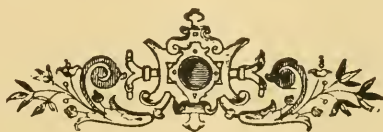
of a legendary romance wrought into the story of Longfellow's poem of "Hiawatha." The Minnehaha River flows over a limestone cliff, making a sudden descent of 60 feet, and the story runs that Minnehaha, an Indian maiden crossed in love, here took the fatal leap.

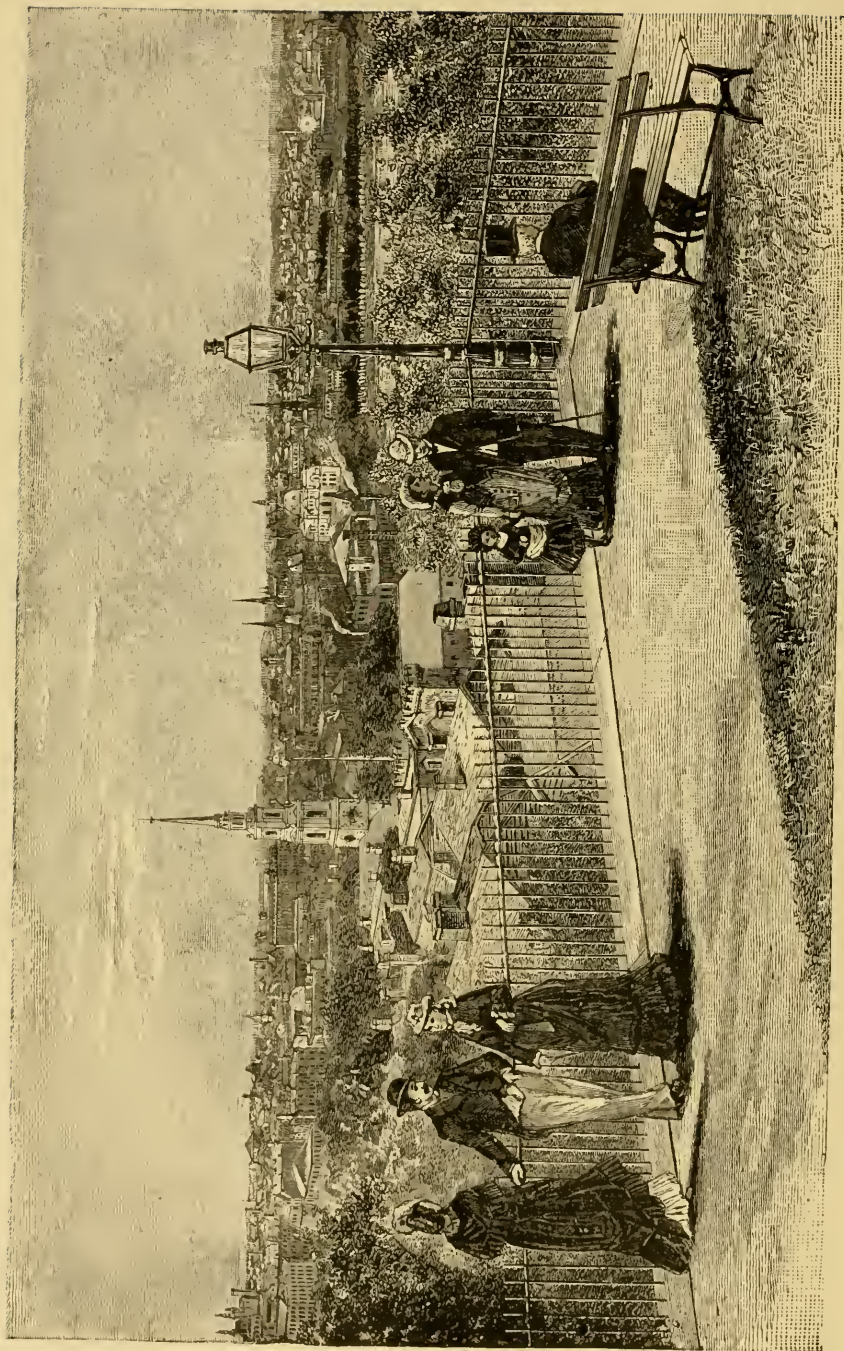
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There are 70 churches.
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of the University of
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of Minnehaha are
Considerable interest
cade, it being the scene

Minnehaha, in Dakota language, signifies "laughing water."

The twin cities are at once rivals and neighbors, and may at some future period be consolidated into one metropolis. The census of Minnesota was taken in 1885; according to it St. Paul had grown from a population of 3 in 1838, to 111,397 in 1885; and Minneapolis from 45 in 1845, to 129,200 in 1885; while in 1889 the population of Minneapolis was 247,000

During the three years 1883, 1884, and 1885, there was expended in new buildings in these two cities \$52,300,000, in addition to a large sum in public improvements; and it may be safely affirmed that so great a sum thus expended in London, Paris, or New York, in so short a time, would attract the admiration of the world. Yet the palatial hotels, massive business blocks, huge flouring-mills and elegant residences built with this money, stand on the wooded bluffs of the Mississippi, and the world cannot keep up with the facts. The paid-up capital and surplus of the National and State banks of these two cities together, were \$2,225,000 in excess of those of New Orleans in 1885. Minneapolis alone handled 10,000,000 more bushels of wheat that year than Chicago. The Pillsbury A mill manufactured in one week that fall 40,050 barrels of flour, on two separate days turning out 7,000 barrels; while the grist of the Pillsbury B is 2,000 barrels daily. During one ordinary crop-year those two mills made 1,730,000 barrels of flour, while the Washburn mills made 1,318,939 barrels; and there are, besides these mammoth mills, twenty-eight others in these cities, with a total daily capacity of 36,500 barrels. The amount of other manufactures in Minneapolis that year exceeded \$26,000,000. Indeed, this is the natural home for manufactures of all kinds, there being no other locality in the West with its advantages. The climate is mild and pleasant, and to those who desire to get rich, we would say, "Go West, young man," but by all means go to one of the twin cities, as they have had an unparalleled growth, and the indications are will continue to grow as rapidly as heretofore.





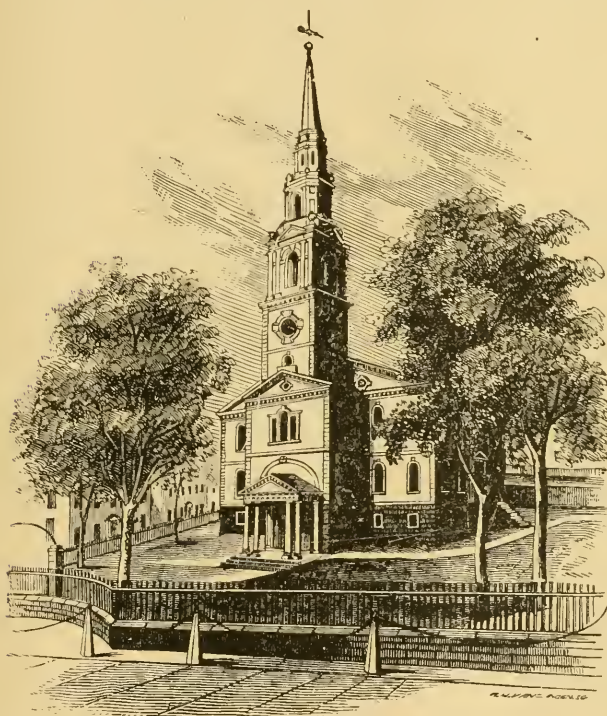
PROVIDENCE, R. I. FROM PROSPECT TERRACE.

CITY OF PROVIDENCE.



PROVIDENCE, one of the two capitals (Providence and Newport) of Rhode Island, and the principal port of entry and county-seat of Providence County, is situated at the head of navigation on the Providence River, which is at the head of Narragansett Bay, 160 miles from New York, 44 from Boston, and 33 from the ocean. The harbor is spacious, and has depth for the largest ships. The place was settled by a colony of

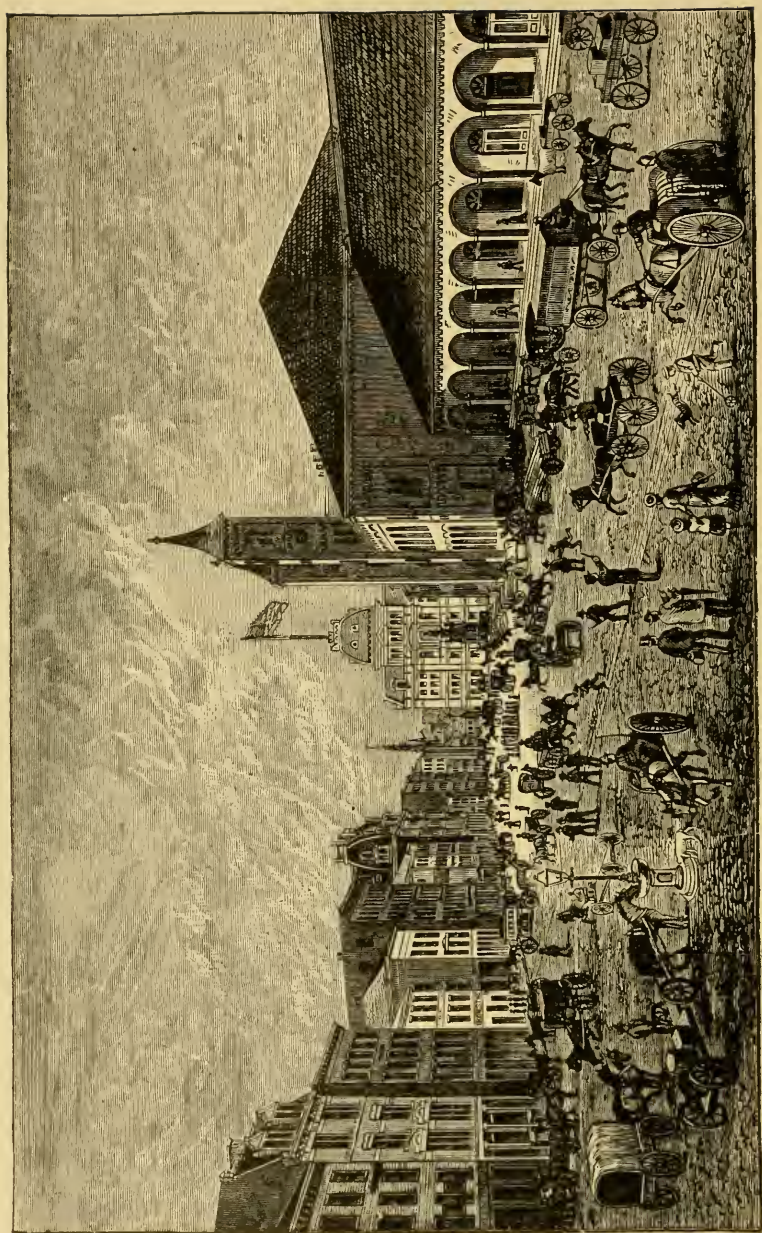
refugees from Massachusetts under Roger Williams in 1636, who established there the oldest Baptist church in America in 1638. It was incorporated as a town in 1649. In 1776 the population was only 4,355, notwithstanding it had been settled 140 years. It was incorporated as a city in 1832. It is now the second city in New England in population, wealth, and manufacturing interests, having an area of 19 square miles on both sides of the river, which above the bridges expands into a cove a mile in circuit, on



FIRST BAPTIST CHURCH.

the banks of which is a handsome park, shaded with elms. It contains many beautiful residences, surrounded with fine lawns and gardens. Its commerce is very extensive, and the city abounds in manufactures and wealth.

Among the manufactures which are produced on an extensive scale are cotton and woolen goods, tools, fire-arms, sewing-machines, iron-ware, gold and silver ware, jewelry, chemicals, dyestuffs, toilet and laundry soaps, and alarm tills. There are also several bleaching and calendering establishments. The



EXCHANGE PLACE, PROVIDENCE, R. I.

iron manufactures include steam-engines and boilers, butt-hinges, screws, locomotives, iron castings, etc. The manufacture of jewelry, however, is considered the most extensive industry in Providence, there being nearly 200 factories of this kind. The Household Sewing-Machine Company, purchasers of the property of the Providence Tool Company, employed in 1886 nearly 2,000 men in manufacturing sewing-machines. Fine tools are manufactured by the Brown and Sharpe Manufacturing Company. Small wares and notions are made by the Fletcher Manufacturing Company. Solid silverware is manufactured by the Gorham Company on an extensive scale. There is also the Providence Steam Engine Company, the Allen Fire Supply Company, the Barstow Stove Company, the Rhode Island Locomotive Works, the Corliss Steam-Engine Works, and Spicer & Peckham Stove Works. There are 6 cotton and woolen mills; it is also the headquarters of 100 cotton factories and 60 woolen mills.

The total value of the manufactures is about \$65,000,000 annually; total imports about \$150,000. The exports, which are unimportant, are quoted at only \$23,000. This is probably accounted for from the fact that most of the vessels are engaged in the coast trade. The number of vessels belonging to the port is 126, of 32,000 tons, while nearly 1,000 engaged in the coast trade enter the port every year.

There are several lines of steamboats, some of which connect with New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Norfolk, and Charleston. The passenger steamboats run between Providence and the City of New York by the Providence and Stonington Steamship Company are probably the largest, most elegant and best equipped of their kind in the world. Railroads radiate in all directions. There were in 1889 about 55 banks, 25 insurance companies, 80 churches, 4 daily papers, and 80 public schools. Among the principal institutions are Brown University, an Athenæum with a library of about 50,000 volumes, a College of the Society of Friends, a Roman Catholic Institute, Franklin Lyceum, hospitals and asylums. The city is governed by a Mayor, with one Alderman and four Councilmen from each Ward. Its population in 1875 was 100,675; in 1880, 104,857; and in 1889, 125,000.



CITY OF MANCHESTER.



MANCHESTER is the most populous city in New Hampshire. It is situated on the Merrimac River, at the Falls of Amoskeag, 59 miles north of Boston, and 18 miles south of Concord, the capital of the State. Manchester was originally settled in 1722 by Scotch-Irish Presbyterians, and was at first called Derryfield, and incorporated under this name in 1751. The name was changed in 1810 to Manchester, and the city was incorporated in 1846. Its manufactures of woolen and cotton goods are of vast proportions. The great mills grind on day after day, and during the evening and at noon thousands of hard-working people can be seen at the post-office and on the streets. The falls of 54 feet afford water-power through canals, which is the foundation of the great manufactures, which consist of cotton and woolen goods, machinery, paper, steam-engines, locomotives, hardware, carriages, boots and shoes, soap, tools, starch, etc. The total capital invested in manufactures has been estimated at \$12,000,000 to \$15,000,000. Among the great corporations may be mentioned the Amoskeag Manufacturing Company, the Stark Mills, the Manchester Mills, and the Langdon Mills. The principal public buildings are the Court-house, State Reform School, Catholic Convent, Library, etc. The city contains 9 banks, about 20 churches, and 50 schools. Its streets are well shaded with elms. It is the terminus of several railroads. Population in 1860, 20,000; 1870, 23,536; 1880, 32,000, and in 1889, 42,000. The other cities of New Hampshire are Concord, the capital (population, 17,000), Nashua (14,000), Dover (11,000), Portsmouth (11,000), and Keene (7,000).

CITY OF WORCESTER.



WORCESTER is the semi-county-seat of Worcester County, Massachusetts. It is situated on the Boston & Albany Railroad, 44 miles from Boston, in a valley surrounded by beautiful hills in a fine agricultural district. The building sites in and around Worcester are delightful, and many of the residences are handsome. The streets are broad and well shaded. The city is famous for its political and philanthropical conventions. The town was incorporated in 1722, and the city in 1848. It was from the

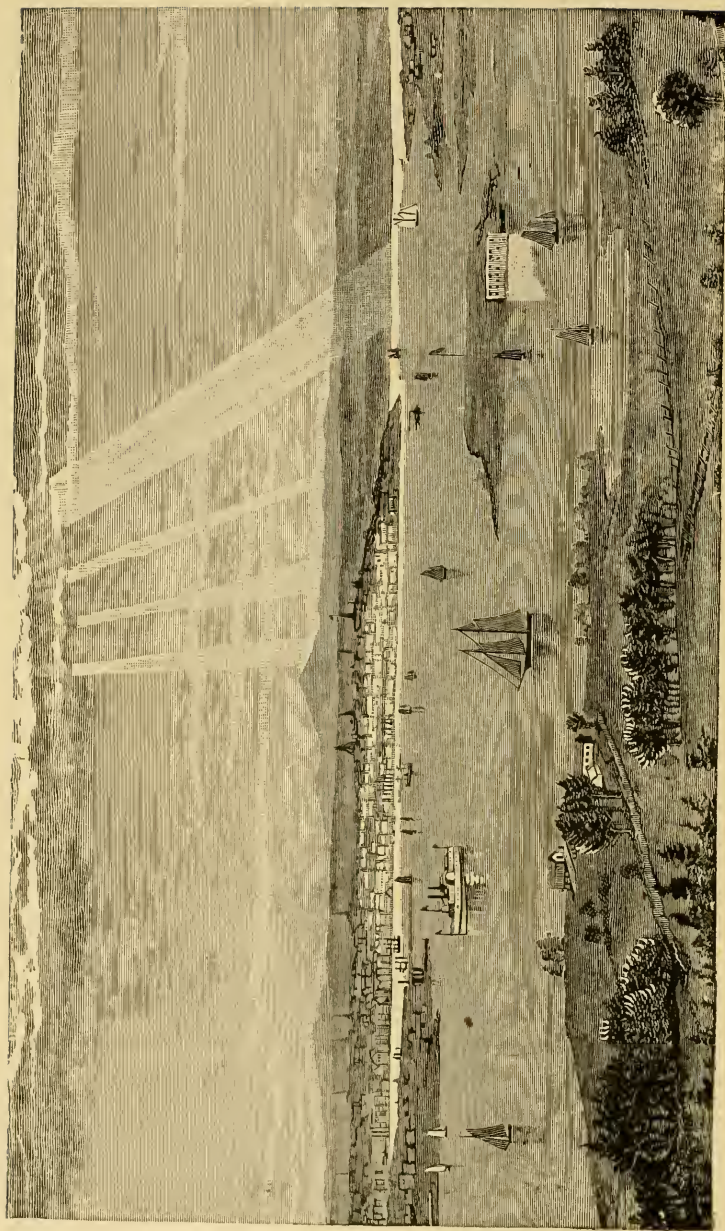
steps of the old South Church (still on the Common) that the Declaration of Independence was first read in Massachusetts. Among the public buildings are the County Court-house, the Union Depot (a massive structure), and the high-school building. The principal institutions are the City Hospital, the Orphans' Home, the Homes for Aged Men and Women, the American Antiquarian Society with a library of over 50,000 volumes and a valuable cabinet, the State Lunatic Asylum, the State Normal School, the College of the Holy Cross, which is the principal Catholic college in New England; the Military Academy, and the Free Institute of Industrial Science. The high, grammar, intermediate, and primary schools are considered the model schools of New England.

The principal manufactures consist of boots and shoes (of which there are over 30 factories), iron, wire, machinery, boilers, corsets, cotton goods, woolen goods, carpets, pistols, paper, locks, hardware, pianos, etc. The city is the centre of several railroads. There are numerous banks, insurance companies, and newspapers, three of the latter being French. Main and Front Streets are the principal business streets. The business blocks have a fine appearance, and impress a stranger with the magnitude and importance of the business which centres in Worcester. Population, 1880, 58,295 1886, 67,000; 1889, 82,000.

CITY OF PORTLAND.



PORTLAND is the leading commercial city and a seaport of Maine, beautifully situated on an arm of the southwest side of Casco Bay. It occupies a peninsula three miles long by nearly a mile wide. Its Indian name was Machigonne. It is 105 miles northeast of Boston, 60 miles southwest of Augusta, and 293 miles from Montreal. It includes several small islands in the bay, and was originally a part of Falmouth. It is connected with Montreal and Detroit by the Grand Trunk Railway; and is the terminus of six other railways. Grain is shipped from the Pacific coast to Portland without change of cars. Its trade with Europe, South America, the West Indies, and coast towns is very important. Its harbor is the best on the Atlantic coast, having 40 feet of water at low tide; it is protected by the islands from storms, and has a good entrance. It is the winter station of the Canadian steamers. It is defended by two forts and the fortifications on Hog Island, which pro-



PORTLAND, ME., HARBOR. FROM CUSHING ISLAND.

fect four entrances. The exports average \$25,000,000, and imports \$22,000,000. It has one dry-dock. Ship-building is conducted on an extensive scale. Among the other industries may be mentioned the manufacture of iron, carriages, furniture, leather, petroleum, varnishes, boots and shoes, jewelry, etc. The sales of merchandise amount annually to about \$50,000,000; the manufactures amount to about \$10,000,000.

The city has fine, broad, shaded streets and handsome public edifices, among which may be mentioned a fire-proof and granite building for the



CITY HALL AND COURT-HOUSE.

United States Courts and Custom-house, costing \$490,000; the City Hall of olive-colored free-stone, the Mechanics' Hall of granite, the Post-office of white marble, etc. The city contains over 30 churches, and is the seat of an Episcopal Bishop and of a Catholic Bishop. It has numerous charitable institutions, and about 70 societies for charitable objects. The city contains a Law Library and Public Library.

The place was first settled in 1632 by an English colony, and was called Casco, but in 1668 it was changed to Falmouth. In 1786 a portion of the place, containing about 2,000 people, was called Portland. The principal occupation of the early settlers consisted of fishing and trading in furs, which they

purchased from the Indians. In 1675 the place contained but forty families. The town was incorporated in 1718. In 1755 the population had reached nearly 3,000 souls. In 1800 Maine was separated from Massachusetts and admitted into the Union as a State, and from that time until 1832 Portland was the capital; in the latter year the capital was removed to Augusta. Portland was three times burned in the wars with the French and Indians. In 1866, on the 4th of July, a fire-cracker in a boat-builder's shop was the cause of a fire which destroyed \$10,000,000 worth of property. Population in 1870, 31,413; in 1880, 34,000; and in 1889, 40,000.

CITY OF NEW HAVEN.



NEW HAVEN is the largest city in Connecticut and a port of entry. It is situated at the head of a bay, four miles from Long Island Sound, on a plain between the Quinipiack and West Rivers. East Rock and West Rock are on either side, and are of volcanic formation, about 400 feet high. The city is 76 miles from New York and 36 from Hartford. The harbor is shallow, but has been much improved, and is provided with a breakwater. The city is known as "Elm City," from the fine old elm trees, many of which were planted over 100 years ago, which shade and adorn its streets, parks, and squares.

The Rev. John Davenport and Theophilus Eaton, with a small colony of Puritans, founded New Haven in 1638, and with other adjoining towns it formed an independent colony until 1662, when it was included in the same charter with Connecticut. New Haven and Hartford were joint capitals from this time until 1874, when Hartford became the sole capital.

The public square or "Green" is located in the centre of the city, and is surrounded by a double row of fine old elms. Temple Street, which passes through the "Green," is bordered by some of the finest elms in the city. On the "Green" are three churches, one of which is the oldest in New Haven. Behind one of these churches are the tombs of the "regicides," Whalley, Dixwell, and Goffe; and upon the side or slope of West Rock is a cave composed of boulders, in which the "regicides" concealed themselves, and on which is the inscription: "Opposition to tyrants is obedience to God." The central part of Chapel, Church, Orange, and State Streets is devoted to busi-

ness. There are many fine streets, bordered with ancient elms, on which are handsome residences, surrounded with fine lawns and gardens.

Among the finest edifices may be mentioned the City Hall, County Court-house, Post-office and Custom-house, the Yale College buildings, the Insurance building, the Hillhouse High-School, the Hospital, Trinity Church, St. Mary's Roman Catholic Church, and the Calvary Baptist Church. A large, new, and beautiful park has been built on East Rock, with several miles of drives. The scenery from the sides and top of this rock is very picturesque. The drives wind around the rock in serpentine form. On the top of the rock is a restaurant, from which point a beautiful view of the city can be had. The new Soldiers' Monument is to be erected on the top of East Rock, where it can be seen from the vessels coming up the harbor. The Farnham Drive and the English Drive are so named in honor of the late Mr. Farnham and Governor English, who donated the money for their construction. Churches, cemeteries, and fine drives abound in and about the City of Elms. Savin Rock, on the west shore, four miles from New Haven, has become very popular as a summer resort. It contains many fine residences, and is in some respects a miniature Coney Island.

New Haven is a manufacturing city of great importance. Its manufactures of fire-arms, clocks, pianos and organs, carriages, india-rubber goods, corsets, iron goods, and machinery are very extensive. Other manufactured goods consist of cutlery, fish-hooks, paper boxes, brass goods, musical instruments, boots and shoes. It is the centre of a considerable wholesale and retail trade. The carriage business is one of the largest industries in the city. It is probably the first city in the Union for fine carriages. The Candee Rubber Factory is claimed to be the second largest in the world, while the Winchester Rifle Company finds a market not only in the United States, but in many parts of the globe. The Wheeler Iron Works and Sargent's factories are among the most important in the State. Nearly all the coal and much of the freight of New England passes through the city.

New Haven in years past has had a large intercourse with the West Indies, but in later years much of it is conducted from New York. Its commerce with Europe has increased rapidly, its foreign exports chiefly consisting of fire-arms, cartridges, shot, carriages, pianos, organs, machinery, etc. In one year 80 vessels of about 17,000 tons entered and 34 vessels of 9,000 tons cleared the port in the foreign trade. The direct foreign exports amounted to nearly \$3,500,000, and the direct foreign imports to nearly \$1,-

000,000. Much of the business being done through New York, these figures do not represent the entire exports and imports. About 800 vessels are engaged in the coast trade, which is very extensive; about 200 vessels belong to the district. There are 12 National, State, and savings banks, 1 trust company, 2 insurance companies; 5 lines of railroad connect it with all parts of the country, and 2 daily lines of steamboats with New York. It is the seat of Yale College, which was founded in 1700; first established at Saybrook, and removed to New Haven in 1716. It is named in honor of Elihu Yale, who was born in New Haven in 1648, and when ten years old was taken to England by his father, and never returned; was afterwards Governor of the East India Company, and Fellow of the Royal Society. His gifts to Yale were about £500 in money and many books. The college has over 100 instructors and nearly 1,200 students. Of its four faculties the medical was organized in 1812, the theological in 1822, the legal in 1824 and the philosophical in 1847. Its government consists of the Governor and Lieutenant-Governor of the State, 6 fellows, its President, and 10 ministers. There is a geological and mineralogical cabinet of 30,000 specimens, and the college has the historical pictures and portraits of Trumbull. The buildings of the academical department occupy one of the squares in which the city was first laid out. It is almost in the centre of the city, above the "Green" or park; it has about 650 students. Examinations are held in Chicago, Cincinnati, and New Haven each summer for admission to this department; the course is four years. The college library has about 100,000 volumes; the libraries of the professional departments number about 20,000 volumes. The Peabody Museum of Natural History in connection with Yale College was erected from a fund of \$150,000 donated by George Peabody, of England, and its accumulations, at a cost of \$175,000. The collections are open to the public.

The population of New Haven in 1870 was 50,840; in 1880, 62,882; and in 1889, 84,000.

CITY OF HARTFORD.



HARTFORD is the capital and one of the principal commercial cities of Connecticut, and is situated in the centre of the State, on the west bank and 50 miles from the mouth of the Connecticut River, at the head of navigation, 36 miles from New Haven and 111 miles from New York. It is a port of delivery connected with the District of Middletown.

The new Capitol is of white marble, and was erected at a cost of \$2,500,000, and opened in 1878. It is one of the finest structures of its kind in America. It is 295 feet long, 189 feet deep, and 257 feet high from the ground to the top of the crowning figure. It is located in the park on Capitol Hill, and commands a splendid view. The city is beautifully situated on rolling ground or small hills, and covers about 10 square miles. A small river, known as Park River, runs through the park; and near the centre of the town a fine bridge spans the Connecticut River, and connects East Hartford with Hartford. The park covers 45 acres, and is named after the late Rev. Dr. Horace Bushnell. It contains a memorial arch, erected by the town of Hartford, "In honor of those who served and in memory of those who fell in the War for the Union;" a fine statue by Ward of General Israel Putnam, and a statue of Dr. Horace Wells, the discoverer of anæsthesia. Trinity College formerly occupied the site now occupied by the Capitol. Its new site is on Rocky Hill, approached by some of the finest avenues of the city. The buildings are of brown stone, and form three great quadrangles; the front is about 1,300 feet long; the grounds consist of 80 acres. This city is the home of Samuel L. Clemens (Mark Twain), Mrs. Harriet Beecher Stowe, and was the home of the late Mrs. Sigourney, the poetess. Some of the private residences in Hartford are very beautiful, and are set in lawns and gardens, many of them adorned with statuary, groves, and greenhouses.

The city is regularly laid out. The principal retail trade is on Main and Asylum Streets, which cross each other at right angles at State House Square in the centre of the city. It is here that the old State House stands, now occupied as the City Hall. It was built in 1795. It was in this old State House that the famous Hartford Convention met in 1815. The new Post-office is an elegant structure, and is located just back of the old State House.

Hartford was settled in 1635 by English colonists who had first settled in Massachusetts. In 1636 was established the General Court of the Colony; in the following year occurred the war with the Pequot Indians; the first church was founded in 1638; a Constitution for the government of the Colony was framed in 1639; a House of Correction was established in 1640; the first tavern was authorized in 1644; capital offences were reduced (by a new code of laws) from 160 under the English laws to 15 in 1650. In 1654 the Dutch of New Amsterdam, who had possession for a time, were ejected. •

Governor Andross tried to seize the Colonial Charter in 1687, but failed in the attempt, as it was carried off and hid in the famous Charter Oak tree.

Connecticut was very patriotic in the Revolution, and contributed largely in men and money to the late Civil War. The city of Hartford was incorporated in 1784. It became the sole capital in 1874, New Haven and Hartford having been semi-capitals previous to this date.

Hartford has an extensive trade with nearly all parts of the country. It is one of the principal seats of the life and fire insurance business, and several of the finest buildings in Hartford have been constructed by insurance companies. Book publishing has been conducted on a very extensive scale for a city of its size. Among the great manufactories may be mentioned Colt's Arms Factory (capital, \$1,000,000), the Weed Sewing-Machine Factory, the Pratt & Whitney Machine Factory, the Washburn Car-Wheel Factory, the Plimpton Envelope Company, several large iron works and foundries, marble works, and Cheney's Silk Mills. The various manufactures amount to about \$7,000,000 annually. In proportion to the number of inhabitants, Hartford is claimed to be the richest city in America.

The Deaf and Dumb Institute was founded in 1817 by Dr. Gallaudet. The Retreat for the Insane is a fine building in which nearly 5,000 patients have been treated. Among the other institutions are the Wadsworth Athenæum, in which the Connecticut Historical Society is located; the Hartford Hospital, the State Bible Society, the State Arsenal, the Widows' Home, and the City Hospital. About forty churches adorn the city. The Church of the Good Shepherd (Episcopal) was built by Mrs. Colt as a memorial to her husband. It is a very beautiful structure, with fine memorial windows. The Cedar Hill cemetery is very picturesque, and has many fine monuments. Hartford has a fine system of public schools, and contains the oldest grammar school in the State, founded in 1655. The city has a Free Library, a School of Design, and about 20 banks. Railroads connect the city with all parts of New England, and numerous lines of steamboats and sailing craft carry on an extensive commerce. Among its exports are tobacco and silks. Hartford is famous as one of the oldest towns in the country where were enacted the "Blue Laws." Population in 1870, 37,180; in 1880, 45,000; and in 1889, 50,000.

CITY OF SYRACUSE.



YRACUSE is an important city of Central New York and county seat of Onondaga County. It is situated in the Onondaga Valley, at the head of Onondaga Lake, on the Erie Canal, at the junction of the New York Central and Oswego Railroads. It is 148 miles from Albany and 150 miles from Buffalo. The Oswego Canal runs north from the city. It is the centre of a large trade on account of its central location. It is sometimes called the "City of Conventions." The manufacture of salt is one of its principal industries. The salt springs were first discovered by the Jesuits in 1654, and were taken possession of by the State in 1797, at which time special laws were passed governing the manufacture. About twenty companies are now engaged in this industry; the works are situated on the shores of the lake, and are the largest in America.

The other important industries are iron furnaces, numerous large machine-shops, Bessemer steel works, rolling-mills, boiler works, fruit canning, silver-ware, breweries, carriage-shops, malleable iron works, musical instruments (organs), tinware, sheet-iron, door, sash and blind factories, agricultural implements, etc. There are over 100 large manufacturing establishments; the annual product is about \$20,000,000. It is a handsome city; contains a Court-house, State Arsenal, State Lunatic Asylum, 56 churches, 11 banks, and numerous schools and libraries. Population in 1880 55,563; in 1889, 83,540.

CITY OF SPRINGFIELD.



PRINGFIELD, Mass., is an important commercial centre. It is situated in the Connecticut Valley, on the east bank of the Connecticut River, 138 miles from New York, 102 from Albany, and 98 from Boston. It is the county seat of Hampden County, and the centre of a large number of railroads that connect it with all parts of the country and have done much towards the growth of the city. The principal industries are the United States Armory, employing about 800 men; the Smith & Wesson Company (manufacturers of revolvers), the Wason Car Company (manufacturers of railroad cars), and the Morgan Envelope Company. *Other manufactures are cigars, jewelry, buttons, cloth, edge tools, pumps, gas machines, fire-engines, india-

rubber goods, and paper. Some emigrants from Roxbury settled in Springfield in 1635. The place was at first called Agawam, and finally changed to Springfield in 1640. The city was incorporated in 1852. The main street in Springfield has an attractive business appearance; it is long and broad, and has many fine business blocks. The streets are generally shaded. The arsenal is situated on the hill in a fine park of over 70 acres. During the Civil War the armory was run night and day, and about \$12,000,000 were expended in the production of arms. Four bridges span the Connecticut River at this point. The suburbs of the city are very picturesque.

The public buildings consist of the Court-house (a fine granite building); the City Hall; the Public Library, containing about 50,000 volumes, which cost over \$100,000; a Museum of Natural History is also located in this building. About 30 fine churches adorn the city. There are numerous banks, fire and life insurance companies. It is here that the *Springfield Republican* is published, a paper that is well known in all parts of the country; there are numerous other papers, both daily and weekly. There is a good system of public schools, and the fire and police departments are very efficient. This city is the home of Webster's Unabridged Dictionary, the publication of which has done much to increase the reputation of Springfield. Population, 1870, 26,703; 1880, 33,340; 1889, 42,000.

CITY OF LYNN.



LYNN, a city of Massachusetts, on the east bank of the Saugus River, extends 3 miles along the Atlantic shore, 9 miles northeast of Boston. It has a small harbor lying west of the peninsula of Nahant. It is connected with Boston by the B., R. B. & L. and B. & M. Railroads, and by a horse railroad. Nearly the whole population is engaged in the manufacture of boots and shoes and works connected therewith. The shipments of boots and shoes annually are about 12,000,000 pairs, worth about \$20,000,000. There are over 200 establishments engaged in this industry, with an estimated capital of \$12,000,000. The leather industry employs nearly \$1,000,000 capital; tanning and finishing about 1,000 skins per day. These industries employ nearly 12,000 hands. Among the principal architectural attractions of the city is the St. Stephen's Church edifice, presented to the parish by the late E. R. Mudge, of Swampscott, as a memorial to his son, Colonel Charles

E. Mudge, killed at Gettysburg. The material of which the church is built was taken from the Mudge estate at Swampscott. The place was settled in 1629, and incorporated in 1850. Originally it comprised the town of Swampscott and the watering-place of Nahant, which is two miles distant. "We have more men than uniforms; what shall we do?" was the response to the call of the State for troops in 1861. It was in Lynn that the first American fire-engine was made, and the remains of the original iron-works are still exhibited. The coasting trade is considerable. High Rock, in the centre of the city, is 180 feet high, and is the end of a range of hills that form its north background. It has a Soldiers' Monument which cost over \$30,000, erected in 1872; three beautiful cemeteries, extensive water-works, a well-organized Fire Department, a fine system of public schools, a Free Public Library, with 30,000 volumes; about 30 churches, a City Hall which cost over \$300,000, two fire insurance companies, and banks with about \$1,500,000 capital. The handsome common, the public squares, and above all, the beach, where numerous fine residences have been built, add much to the attractions of Lynn. Salem, noted for witchcraft, is only five miles distant. Population of Lynn, 1870, 28,000; 1880, 38,284; 1889, 51,000.

CITY OF TROY.



TROY is a city of New York, and the capital of Rensselaer County. It is situated on the east bank of the Hudson River at its confluence with the Mohawk, at the head of steamboat navigation and tide-water, 151 miles north of New York City and 6 miles north of Albany. Troy was settled by the Dutch in 1700, and was incorporated as a village in 1794. Four times it has been nearly destroyed by fire; in 1862 the loss amounted to \$3,000,000. Two small streams, having a series of falls, furnish water-power to mills and factories, besides that given by a dam across the Hudson. At Troy is the principal outlet of the canals connecting the Hudson with Lakes Champlain, Ontario, and Erie; and it has railways diverging in all directions, connecting it with New York, Boston, etc. The Union Depot, in the centre of the city, is one of the largest in America.

The iron furnaces and manufactories are the largest east of the Alleghanies, being furnished with the magnetic ores of Lake Champlain and the hematitic ores of Western Massachusetts. The coal is brought from Pennsyl-

vania and Maryland. The chief iron-works are those for bar-iron, railway-spikes, nails, locomotives, stoves, hot-air furnaces, hollow-ware, machinery, agricultural implements, etc. Other important manufactures are those of railway cars, coaches, cotton and woolen goods, breweries, flour, boots and shoes, and shirts and collars—the latter employing upward of 10,000 persons, with extensive machinery. The first Bessemer steel works in the United States were located at Troy. Its manufacture of stoves exceeds that of any other city in the Union; while the products of its furnaces, rolling-mills, and foundries are enormous. There is also the largest manufactory of mathematical instruments in the country. The articles which reach tide-water by the canals centering at Troy, including lumber, are valued at \$17,000,000 annually. A fine iron bridge, which cost \$250,000, spans the river, connecting Troy and West Troy; the latter is practically a part of Troy, as Alleghany City is of Pittsburgh.

The city contains 55 churches, fine public schools, the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institution, a Roman Catholic seminary, asylums, academies, etc. The Watervliet Arsenal, with workshops located in handsome grounds, is in West Troy. Population, 1870, 46,421; 1880, 56,747; 1889, 66,000.

CITY OF ALBANY.



ALBANY is the capital of New York; it is situated on the west bank of the Hudson River, 145 miles north of New York City. It is the oldest town in the Union, with the exception of Jamestown, Va., and St. Augustine, Fla. It was settled by the Dutch, and used as a trading-post with the Indians as early as 1614; it was known as Beaver Wyck, and afterwards as Williamstadt. Fort Orange was erected in 1623, and the place was known by that name until it came into the possession of the British in 1664, when it was named Albany, in honor of the Duke of York and Albany, afterward James II. It was incorporated as a city in 1686, and in 1797 became the capital of the State.

The new Capitol at Albany is a magnificent structure. It is built of granite, and was erected at great cost; it is, in fact, one of the finest, largest, and most expensive buildings of the kind in the Union. It is 390 feet long by 290 wide, and covers more than three acres. It contains the public institutions, among which are the State Library, containing 150,000 volumes, and a

great many interesting Revolutionary relics; and the Geological Hall, containing very extensive and varied collections in geology and natural history. The State Hall is used for certain departments of the government. The State Normal School, established in 1844, has been very successful. The Albany Academy has a building of rare architectural beauty. The Union University, in which the most important branches of practical science are taught in all their departments, was incorporated in 1852. The Medical College, founded in 1839, has one of the best museums in America, and is well furnished with ample means of instruction. The Law School, established in 1851, has educated a large number of students. The Dudley Observatory, established in 1852, is well organized and equipped for its purposes. The Medical and Law Schools were at first separate institutions, but now, with Union College, constitute Union University.



ALBANY, N. Y.

Albany has a fine system of public schools, with a high-school, which is very efficient. There are two public hospitals and a penitentiary. It is a great centre of railways, and is one of the largest timber markets in the world; millions of cubic feet pass through this market annually. Stove manufacture is an important branch of its industries. The city is situated in the midst of a fertile country, and is a great emporium for the transit trade of the North and West with the cities on the coast, and being situated at the point where the Champlain and Erie Canals join the Hudson, it has great advantages for commerce. It contains some of the finest public edifices in the Union, which for rare architectural beauty are seldom surpassed. Viewed from some points on the river, Albany has a fine, picturesque, and striking appearance. Three large bridges span the Hudson River. The water supply

is from an artificial lake a short distance from the city, and in part from the Hudson. There is a beautiful public park on the west side of the city, in which some of the scenery is very picturesque. There are over 60 churches of various denominations. The population in 1880 was 90,903, and in 1889, 100,000.

CITY OF LOWELL.



LOWELL is an important manufacturing city of Massachusetts, situated on the Merrimac River, 25 miles from Boston. It is the centre of numerous railroads, and has been called the Manchester of America, by reason of its vast manufacturing industries. The Merrimac River, near the mouth of the Concord River, has a fall of 33 feet at this point, which supplies canals with water power. These canals are controlled by a company, which erected extensive factories for twelve large corporations, who consume about 10,000,000 pounds of wool and 50,000,000 pounds of cotton annually, and have an invested capital of \$16,000,000 and employ 16,000 operatives, of whom over 11,000 are females. The employés for years came from the agricultural districts of the surrounding States, and lived in large boarding-houses, built and owned by the corporations, and kept under strict discipline. Foreign immigration has added largely to the number of operatives in later years. The twelve corporations produce annually 140,000,000 yards of cotton, 3,500,000 yards of woolen cloth, 2,500,000 yards of carpets, 135,000 shawls, nearly 10,000,000 dozen hosiery (dye and print), and 67,000,000 yards cotton cloth. It has eighty large mills. The capital of each corporation varies from \$1,250,000 to \$2,500,000. The carpets manufactured include ingrain, Brussels, and Melton, and equal in design, quality, and finish any manufactured in Europe. Among the other industries are the Lowell machine-shops, employing 1,400 men and a capital of \$600,000; the Kitson Machinery Factory, the American Bolt Company, the Swaine Turbine-Wheel Company, and the Lowell Bleachery, employing 500 hands and over \$250,000 capital. Other manufactures are hosiery, edge tools, tiles, screws, fixed ammunition and cartridges, paper, hair felt, elastic goods, carriages, furniture, pumps, hydraulic presses, bobbins, chemicals, etc.

The City Library contains 17,000 volumes; the Mechanics' Library, 13,-

ooo volumes. The city was chartered in 1836. It originally consisted of the town of Chelmsford; subsequently parts of Dracot and Tewksbury were added. It is well paved, drained, and lighted by gas. It has a Court-house and 7 national banks, with an aggregate capital of \$2,350,000. There are 6 savings banks, two hospitals, two insurance companies, Roman Catholic Orphan Asylum, an old Ladies' Home, Young Women's Home, a good Fire Department, with an electric fire-alarm, and a well-organized police force. The city has handsome public squares. In the centre of the city is a monument erected to the memory of Ladd and Whitney, members of the Sixth Massachusetts Volunteers, who were killed on April 19, 1861, by a mob in Baltimore. The water-works were finished in 1873, and cost \$1,500,000. The city was named in honor of Francis Cabot Lowell, of Boston. Belvidere is the fashionable quarter of the city, and is in the eastern section. The population in 1861 was 36,827; 1870, 40,928; 1880, 59,845; 1889, 80,000.

CITY OF SCRANTON.

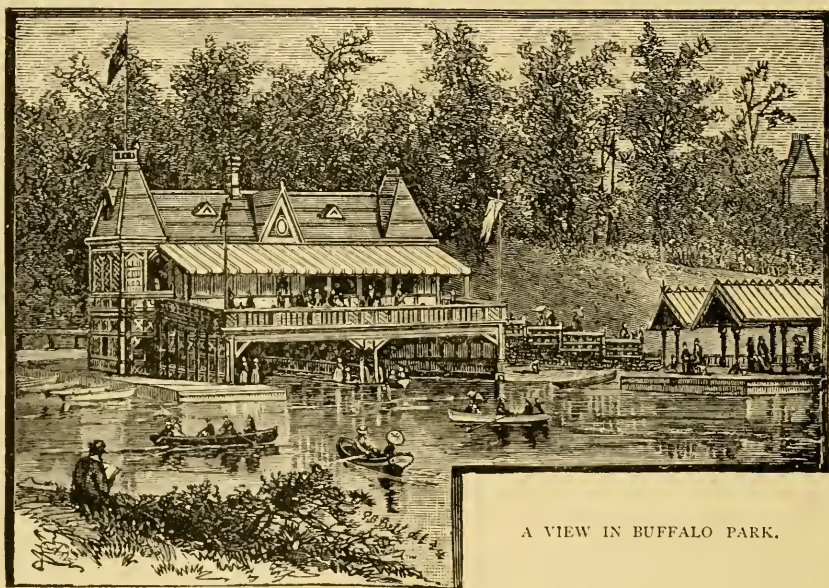


SCRANTON is a city in Pennsylvania. It is situated in a valley on the Lackawanna River. It was founded by a family of the name of Scranton in 1840, and incorporated as a city in 1866. It is 145 miles from New York and 167 miles from Philadelphia. It is in the midst of the coal region. Its shipments, upward of 50,000 tons daily, are enormous, and it has a large trade in mining supplies. It has vast iron and steel works, extensive machine-shops, breweries, gunpowder works, and stove works. It fixes the American rate on steel rails. Other industries are silk fabrics, brass goods, leather, hollow-ware, etc. It has numerous handsome and substantial public buildings, 12 banks, over 30 fine churches, gas-works, water-works, a good fire department, numerous charitable institutions, public schools, academies, a Board of Trade, a Scientific and Historical Society, and a fine collection of Indian relics. The city is well laid out, and has a fine business appearance. Its wholesale trade is very extensive. It is on the Delaware, Lackawanna & Western Railroad, and is the terminus of the Lackawanna & Bloomsburgh, Delaware & Hudson, the Erie, and the Philadelphia & Reading Railroads. Scranton is a growing city and a great hive of industry. Population, 1880, 45,850; 1889, 90,000.

CITY OF BUFFALO.



UFFALO for many years has been called the "Queen City of the Lakes," and well merits that proud appellation. It is a port of entry, and the capital of Erie County, New York; situated at the eastern extremity of Lake Erie, at the head of Niagara River, and the mouth of Buffalo River, in latitude 42 degrees 53 minutes north, longitude 78 degrees 55 minutes west; about 293 miles northwest of New York City, and is the western terminus of the Erie Canal. It has one of the finest harbors on the lakes, formed by the Buffalo River, a small stream which is navi-



A VIEW IN BUFFALO PARK.

gable for about three miles from its mouth. The entrance is protected by a breakwater 1,500 feet long, upon the south side of the river. In 1869 the United States Government began the construction of an outside harbor, by building a breakwater, 4,000 feet long, fronting the entrance to Buffalo River, at a distance of about one-half mile from the shore. In addition to the harbor, there are a large number of slips, docks, and basins, for the accommodation of shipping and canal-boats. The city was founded in 1804, and named New Amsterdam. It became a military post in 1813, and was destroyed by

the British in the same year. The place was rebuilt after the war, and took its present name from the river, on whose banks stood the principal village of the Seneca Indians, and where lived the famous chiefs, Red Jacket and Farmers Brother.

It grew rapidly after the completion in 1825 of the Erie Canal, and soon became a transfer station for all the commerce of the lakes. It was incorporated as a city in 1832, with a population of about 10,000. In later years it has become one of the most important railroad centres in the country. It is the terminus of the New York Central; New York, Lake Erie, and Western; Lake Shore and Michigan Southern; Michigan Central; New York, West Shore, and Buffalo; Lehigh Valley; Delaware, Lackawanna, and Western; Buffalo, New York, and Philadelphia; New York, Chicago, and St. Louis; Buffalo, Rochester, and Pittsburg, and two branches of the Grand Trunk railroads. The railroad yard facilities are the most extensive in the world, there being about 660 miles of track inside of the city. The vast quantities of grain moving east to the Atlantic coast form an important part of the commerce of Buffalo, and no other city in the Union has better facilities for handling or storing it, there being about 40 elevators with a capacity for handling nearly 4,000,000 bushels per day. The large stock-yards in the eastern suburbs of the city are used not only as a transfer station, but as a market for local distribution. The city has an immense trade in coal, which arrives from Pennsylvania, and is shipped east by rail and canal and west by lake. Its anthracite coal docks are the most extensive in the world. There is quite an extensive trade in lumber from Pennsylvania, Michigan, and Lower Canada. There are over thirty large establishments for the manufacture of iron, besides two yards fitted for iron ship-building, which have produced some of the finest vessels on the lakes, and many iron revenue vessels for the Government. Buffalo takes the lead in the quality of hemlock sole leather produced in the United States. Its flour-mills are also quite extensive, having a capacity of 3,850 bbls. per day.

The city is regularly built, being eight miles long, north and south, and about five miles wide, containing 42 square miles. It has long been celebrated for the elegance of its private dwellings, which can be found in nearly every part of the city, especially on the avenues lying west of Main Street. The broad, straight avenues lined by noble trees add greatly to the beauty of the city. The climate, though cold in winter, is considered pleasant and very healthful; there are good water and sewage systems. Many of the

streets are paved with smooth asphalt. The city is divided into thirteen wards, and its principal officers are the Mayor and Common Council, composed of two Aldermen from each ward, the Comptroller, City Treasurer, City Engineer, Street Commissioner, three Assessors, and Corporation Counsel.

The assessed value of its taxable property is \$114,000,000. Its principal public buildings are: The City and County Hall, completed in 1876, at a cost of \$1,445,000. It is built of granite, is three stories high, not including the finished basement, and furnishes quarters for all the city and county officers, as well as the courts. It is situated on the square bounded by Franklin, Church, Delaware, and Eagle Streets. The County Jail is on the opposite side of Delaware Street, and is connected by a tunnel under the street. There are also the State Insane Asylum, completed at a cost of over \$2,000,000; the Erie County Almshouse; Erie County Penitentiary, and many public hospitals, asylums, and charitable institutions. Among its fine edifices are, the Customhouse; the German Insurance Building; the Hayen Building; the White Building; the Board of Trade Building; the Marine Bank Building; the Young Men's Association Building; the Erie County, Western, and Buffalo Savings Banks Buildings; the Fine-Art Academy; the Fitch Creche; the State Arsenal; and the Seventy-fourth Regiment Armory; besides many elegant hotels and railroad depots.

Among the institutions in which special interest is taken are the Young Men's Association, now called the "Buffalo Library"; the Society of Natural Sciences; the Grosvenor Library; the Buffalo Historical Society; the Academy of Fine-Arts; the Decorative Arts Society; the Liedertafel Singing Society; the Buffalo Orphan Asylum; the Young Men's Christian Association; and the Law Library.

There are over 100 churches and places of public worship; ten daily newspapers and ten weeklies, beside several monthly periodicals; over fifty public schools; a State normal school; one high-school; two medical colleges; St. Joseph's College, conducted by the Christian Brothers; and Canisus College; beside numerous private schools, colleges, and academies. Music Hall, the property of the German Young Men's Association, was destroyed by fire March, 1885, but was subsequently rebuilt more substantially than before. The Young Men's Association, now the Buffalo Library Association, have also erected a new and elegant fire-proof building for the accommodation of their valuable circulating library of nearly 50,000 volumes, and for the joint occupation also of the Buffalo His-

torical Society, the Society of Natural Sciences, and the Academy of Fine-Arts. The park system, extending around the business part of the city in the shape of a horse-shoe, contains over 600 acres, and is connected by boulevards comprising over 12 miles of delightful drives. Forest Lawn Cemetery is beautifully situated, and laid out in the northern part of the city. It contains 75 acres.

The population in 1810 was 1,500; in 1830, 8,653; in 1850, 42,000; in 1870, 117,700; in 1880, 155,134; and in 1889, 242,000.

CITY OF TRENTON.



TRENTON is the capital of New Jersey and an important manufacturing city. It is situated on the Delaware River at its confluence with Assanpink Creek, at the head of steamboat navigation, 28 miles from Philadelphia and 57 miles from New York by the Pennsylvania Railroad. It is a well-built and handsome city, and commands a fine view of the river. It contains the State Capitol, State Lunatic Asylum for 600 patients, State Normal School, Deaf and Dumb Asylum, State Penitentiary, State Library of 25,000 volumes, 36 churches, several daily newspapers, and extensive railway connections. The city is famous for its extensive manufactures of terra-cotta and crockery, which exceed all the rest of the United States put together. Cooper & Hewitt's large iron-works and Roebbling's famous cable bridge works are located here. Other manufactures are steam-engines, machinery, wire, wire-cordage, cotton, woolen, and rubber. In the war of the Revolution, Trenton was the scene (December 25, 1776) of a night attack by Washington upon the British troops—chiefly Hessians—whom he surprised by crossing the Delaware when the floating ice was supposed to have rendered it impassable. Population, 1870, 22,870; 1880, 30,000; 1889, 60,000.

CITY OF WILMINGTON.



WILMINGTON is a city and port of North Carolina, on the Cape Fear River, just below the junction of the northeast and northwest branches, about seven miles from the sea. It has a fine harbor, railway connections, and internal navigation. The exports are ex-

tensive, and consist of cotton, shingles, tar, resin, turpentine, lumber, rice, etc. It is sufficiently far south to enjoy a balmy climate, and is, withal, not only an enterprising and growing city, but a shady, attractive place, sufficiently near the sea to gain the advantage of its health-giving saline atmosphere. It has fine drives and watering-places. Wilmington is a railroad centre of importance, and a port of heavy shipments of Carolinian staples. Depth of water at main bar, 18½ feet.

During the Civil War it was one of the principal ports of the Confederacy, and was celebrated as a port for blockade-runners. It finally surrendered to General Terry in 1865. Population, 1870, 13,446; in 1880, 17,300; and in 1889, 23,000.

CITY OF HARRISBURG.



HARRISBURG is the capital of Pennsylvania and the county seat of Dauphin County, situated on the Susquehanna River, and surrounded by a productive region and magnificent scenery. It is 106 miles from Philadelphia. The river is here a mile wide, and is crossed by three railroad bridges, one of which is nearly 4,700 feet in length. It has a handsome State House, 180 by 80 feet, surmounted by a dome. It has a handsome public square. Its industries consist of iron foundries, machine-shops, coach, car, and steam-engine factories, tanneries, breweries, saw-mills, cotton-mills, etc. It is the seat of a Catholic bishopric. The Cumberland Valley, the Pennsylvania, the Northern Central, the Philadelphia & Reading, the Schuylkill & Susquehanna, and the Southern Pennsylvania railroads radiate from this centre.

The city has a United States Court-house and Post-office building, Court-house, jail, State Arsenal, State Lunatic Asylum, 35 churches, several academies, 10 newspaper-offices, markets, and excellent schools. It was settled in 1733 by John Harris, an Englishman, under a grant from the Penns, the original European settlers of Pennsylvania. In 1785 a town was laid out, and named Harrisburg, after John Harris, Jr., the founder. An attempt was made by Chief-Justice McKean to change the name to Louisburg, in honor of the Dauphin of France, but was successfully resisted by Harris. It was selected as the seat of the State capital in 1812. The city is well paved, and has gas, electric light, and water. Population, 1870, 23,104; 1880, 30,400; and 1889, 40,000.

KANSAS CITY.



KANSAS CITY is the county seat of Jackson County, situated in the State of Missouri, at the confluence of the Missouri and Kansas (or Kaw) Rivers. The boundary line between the States of Kansas and Missouri runs through the western section of the city. A large part of the city is built on a plateau, covering numerous bluffs, which are boldly rugged and picturesque. The principal bluff almost overhangs the narrow strip of land called the bottom that runs parallel with the river. The plateau is intersected by numerous ravines, which form great hills and pretty vales all across the entire city. Thus it happens that almost every street in Kansas City, save only those in "the bottom," is a constant series of "ups and downs," hills and valleys. This lends a picturesqueness to the view when taken from any point of observation that is exceedingly interesting and enjoyable. Situated in the midst of a territory rich in natural resources to an almost unlimited extent, and with almost unequalled climatic advantages, Kansas City engages in commerce of infinite variety. Crop failures are less damaging for the reason that all do not fail in the same season, and the ever-expanding live-stock industry furnishes a great source of revenue.

Kansas City has become the central point in the United States for the packing and canning interest. With six great packing-houses, Kansas City is producing pork products and canned meats that are shipped in immense quantities to all parts of the United States, and the trade abroad has become a regular and special factor in the business. The Western States and Territories are regular patrons of the packing-houses in this city, the trade extending even to the Pacific coast. A conservative estimate of the packing output of the city in value is \$35,000,000 annually.

In bank clearings Kansas City ranks as the eleventh city in the Union. The business buildings of the city are extensive and very substantial; the private residences are numerous and elegant; and the value of real estate has advanced rapidly, in many instances more than doubling in a year. Frémont alluded to the site of the city in 1843 as Chouteau's Landing. The growth of the city began from 1850 to 1860. After the Civil War it became one of the great railroad centres and an important point for supplying emi-

grants on their western journey, and the principal market for the sale of cattle, buffalo skins, and hides. It is now the centre of a vast railway system. Most of these railroads cross the Missouri River on an iron bridge 1,387 feet long, and supported by stone piers. The Kansas River is spanned by two other fine bridges.

Kansas City is almost in the geographical centre of the country, as she is in the centre of the rich agricultural region. The line of industrial and populous growth approaches near this point with each year of progress, and it is easy to discover why Kansas City extends its trade limits with such remarkable rapidity.

The city has one of the best paying cable lines in the United States, and several others are in course of construction. There are numerous grain elevators, having storage capacity for a vast quantity of grain; immense stock-yards, and a cattle stock exchange. Bituminous coal, taken from the surrounding counties, is distributed from this point over a vast region of territory. Population, 1870, 32,260; 1880, 55,813, 1889, 200,000.

CITY OF EVANSVILLE.



EVANSVILLE is an enterprising city and port of entry of Indiana. It is situated in Vanderburgh County, on the right bank of the Ohio, midway between Louisville and Cairo, 150 miles from Indianapolis. It is very advantageously adapted for trade, being connected by several railroads with the great railroad system of the United States. From Evansville downward the navigation of the river is seldom interrupted either by drought or by ice; and here terminates the Wabash & Erie Canal, the longest work of the kind in America. Thus, the place connects the Lower Ohio at once with the inland lakes and with the Gulf of Mexico. Coal and iron ore abound in the vicinity. It is a manufacturing centre of importance, and the trade in agricultural products is very extensive. The city has a fine Custom-house and Post-office, Court-house, Marine Hospital, numerous public halls, schools, churches, etc. It has grown rapidly, and is in a flourishing condition. Population, 1870, 21,830; 1880, 35,000; 1889, 50,000.

CITY OF DAVENPORT.



DAVENPORT is a city in Iowa, opposite Rock Island, Ill. It is situated on the right (or west) bank of the Mississippi River, below the Upper Rapids, 183 miles west of Chicago. It is on the Great Western route from Chicago, and is the centre of numerous railroads. A large iron bridge, which cost \$1,000,000, spans the river at this point, and connects the city with Rock Island; it has railroad, carriage, and pedestrian accommodations. The scenery in this vicinity is unsurpassed on the North Mississippi, and the city, which is on a commanding bluff, affords a fine view of the river.

The manufactures consist of cotton and woollen goods, agricultural imple-



A VIEW OF DAVENPORT IN ITS EARLY DAYS.

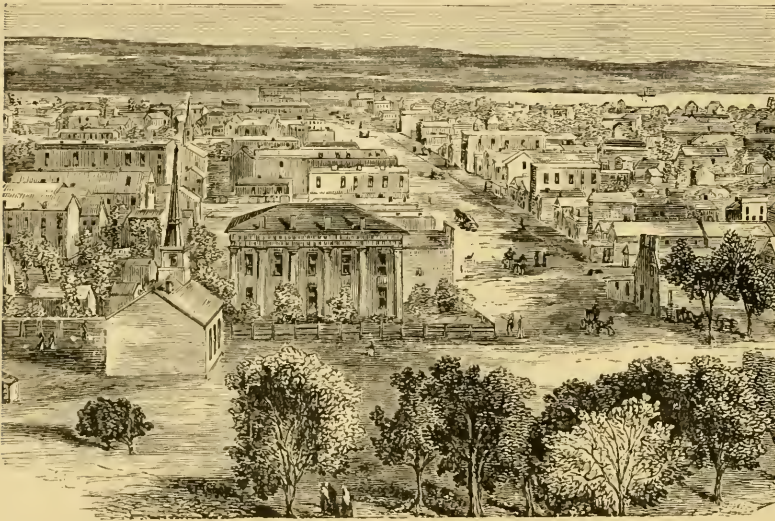
ments, flour, carriages, furniture, lumber, etc. It is situated in the midst of a fine agricultural district, and has a large trade with the surrounding country. It has a fine court-house, City Hall, gas-works, water-works, over 30 churches, schools, banks, Opera-house, a Catholic academy, seminary, hospital, and an Episcopal college. Coal is abundant in the vicinity, and an extensive trade is conducted by rail and water. Numerous fine buildings, erected by the United States Government, including the United States arsenal and military headquarters, are situated on Rock Island. Population, 1870, 20,038; 1880, 25,000; 1889, 30,000.

CITY OF OMAHA.



MAHA is the principal city of the State of Nebraska. It is situated on the west bank of the Missouri River, opposite Council Bluffs, 20 miles from the mouth of the Nebraska River, and 490 miles west by rail from Chicago. The name of the city is derived from one of the Indian tribes of Dakota. The city is built on a plateau about 100 feet above the river, and 1,000 feet above the sea. The place was laid out in 1854, and incorporated in 1859. The capital of the Territory was first located at this point, but was afterwards removed to Lincoln. Omaha is the terminus of the

Union Pacific, the Omaha & Northwestern, the Omaha & Southwestern, and numerous other railroads. It is here that the Union Pacific and Central Pacific connect. The town was originally plan-



OMAHA AS IT WAS IN 1870.

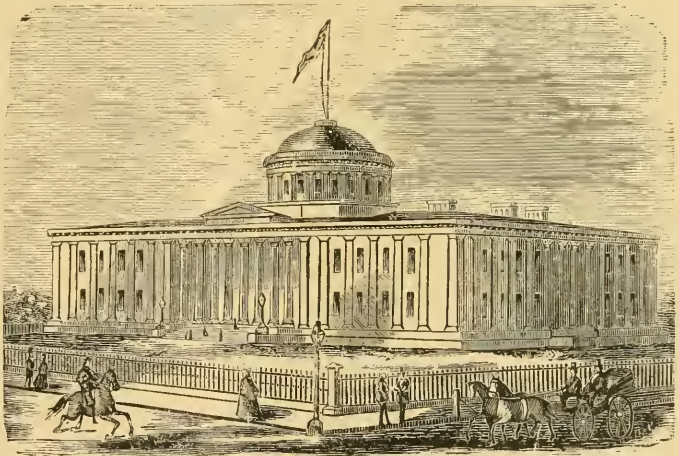
ned on a scale that provided for the growth of a large city. Before the Union Pacific was constructed it was the great point at which emigrants arrived and fitted out for their overland trips to the "Far West." Its growth has been rapid. A bridge spans the Missouri, and connects the city with Council Bluffs. It has extensive railroad shops, iron-works for the manufacture of railroad iron, machine-shops, and smelting works for separating and refining all kinds of ore, which comes to Omaha from the various mining regions. The city has about 30 churches, several daily and weekly papers, is lighted with gas and electricity, has numerous street railroads, schools,

hotels, residences and business blocks, a United States Post-office and Custom-house, in which are the United States Court Chambers for the District of Nebraska; a large State Institution for the Deaf and Dumb. Its wholesale trade is extensive, and rapidly increasing. Population, 1860, 1,900; 1870, 16,083; 1880, 30,518; in 1885, 61,800; and 1889, 110,000. Lincoln has a population of 20,000.

CITY OF COLUMBUS.



COLUMBUS is a flourishing city, and the capital of Ohio. It is situated in Franklin County, on the Scioto River, which is a tributary of the Ohio. It is about 100 miles northeast of Cincinnati, in the midst of an extensive plain. Its streets are wide and handsome, and shaded with elms. The squares and beautiful parks add much to its appearance. The city became the State capital in 1816; to this and the other numerous State institutions the city for a long time owed its importance. But in late years its manufactures have increased rapidly. They consist of carriages, agricultural implements, furniture, files, harness, brushes, printing establishments, extensive flour-mills and engineering works, rolling-mills, blast furnaces, tools, saws, watches, leather, window-glass, malleable iron, boots and shoes. In 1887 there were \$190,000,000 invested as capital in the city, of which \$35,000,000 were in railroads, \$20,000,000 in the coal business, \$20,000,000 in the iron industry, \$18,000,000, in corporation manufacturing, and \$8,000,000 in individual manufacturing.



OHIO STATE CAPITOL.

The principal public buildings are the State Capitol (cost \$1,441,675), the City Hall, the Penitentiary (\$800,000), the new Government Building (\$500,000), the numerous asylums for the blind (\$600,000), deaf and dumb (\$800,000), insane (\$2,000,000), and idiotic, the Court-house, Opera-house, Alms-house, United States Arsenal (\$400,000), high-school building, the Odd Fellows' Hall, Post-office, and the Ohio State University (property value, \$1,200,000). Other attractions are the beautiful gardens of the Horticultural Society, numerous hotels, fine suburbs, horse-railroads, and Green Lawn Cemetery. It is the centre of fourteen lines of railroad, and its population and trade are rapidly increasing. Population, in 1870, 31,000; in 1880, 52,000; in 1889, 95,000.

CITY OF TOLEDO.



TOLEDO is the county seat of Lucas County, Ohio. It is situated on both sides of the Maumee River, near the western extremity of Lake Erie, 92 miles west of Cleveland, and 53 miles southwest of Detroit. It was first settled in 1832, and incorporated in 1836. It has a fine harbor, and is well built. Its streets are broad and regularly laid out. It has very extensive railroads, which centre in one great union depot, and is the terminus of the Miami & Erie and Wabash & Erie Canals, together 700 miles in length. The local and transit trade is immense. It has 45 churches, a convent, three asylums, several lines of horse railroad, a water system which cost \$1,000,000, a fire department and police system which are first-class, numerous fine hotels, banks, schools, a Free Public Library, numerous newspapers, and a Produce Exchange. Its commerce in one year was, in exports, \$1,836,782; imports, \$283,329. It has 10 grain elevators, which can store 4,017,000 bushels. In one year the deliveries of grain amounted to 39,304,891 bushels. The manufactures of the city are very extensive, and comprise carriages, wagons, iron, lumber, sash and blinds, railroad cars, moldings, steam-engines, boilers, pumps, bricks, etc. The wholesale trade is very important, and the city is the centre of a large retail trade with the surrounding country. Population, 1870, 30,731; 1880, 50,000; 1889, 110,000.

CITY OF MEMPHIS.



MEMPHIS is a fine commercial city in Tennessee, and between St. Louis and New Orleans the largest one on the Mississippi. It is the capital of Shelby County, is 420 miles below St. Louis, and 800 miles above New Orleans, is handsomely built on the fourth Chickasaw bluff, 70 feet above the highest floods, and is the outlet of a large cotton region. In 1880 the city had 138 manufacturing establishments, using a capital of \$2,313,975, employing 2,268 hands, paying in wages \$845,672, and yielding products valued at \$4,413,422. By 1886 these establishments had increased to 300, and embraced several foundries, boiler and machinery shops, 11 saw and planing mills, and 10 cotton-seed oil mills, the latter having a capital of \$1,000,000. During the season of 1885-6 the shipments of cotton aggregated 430,127 bales, and between Sept. 1, 1888, and Feb. 22, 1889, the receipts amounted to 464,255 bales. At the latter date the city had obtained the distinction of being the largest interior cotton market in the United States. Ten railroads and forty steamboats contributed to her growing importance as a business centre in 1889.

Memphis has fine public buildings, hotels, and theatres, 59 churches (of which 31 are for colored people), 3 colleges, 100 schools, 5 daily and 10 other newspapers, 10 banks, and several insurance companies; railways connect it with New Orleans, Charleston, Louisville, Little Rock, and all parts of the country. There is a Cotton Exchange, a Custom-house, a Chamber of Commerce, and a Board of Health. The latter have taken stringent measures to prevent a recurrence of the yellow fever, which desolated it in the summers of 1878 and 1879. In the Civil War the city fell into the hands of the Federal forces in 1862, and was the base of military operations for the capture of Vicksburg, July 4, 1863.

Owing to a variety of unfortunate circumstances which it is needless to recount here, the city defaulted in the payment both of the principal and interest of her debt on Jan. 1, 1873. For six years her business men struggled under the burden and disfavor of the increasing indebtedness, and seeing no prospect of relief under the existing form of government they secured the passage by the legislature of a bill repealing the city charter and creating "The Taxing District of Shelby County" instead, in January, 1879. A re-

ceiver was appointed the following month by one of the Federal courts under the provisions of the repealing act. He took charge of all city property, and was authorized to collect the sum of \$3,000,000 of unpaid taxes, by garnishment or otherwise. While he was engaged in this collection, the State Supreme Court, on an appeal, decided that the repealing act was constitutional; and the United States Supreme Court decided that the action of the Federal court in appointing a receiver was erroneous. In 1881 the debt of the city, principal and interest, amounted to \$6,600,000. In rendering the decision cited, the late Chief Justice Waite, of the United States Supreme Court, affirmed that the "taxing district" was liable for the debts of its predecessor, on the ground that one corporation had succeeded another, and that payment could come only through the levy of taxes on the existing corporation by the legislature, which had sovereign jurisdiction in the matter. The new government provided by the repealing act consists of a council of three commissioners and a board of public works of five, elected for terms of four years each, and serving without compensation. Under this form of government the old debt has been settled and funded, one of the best sewage and drainage systems in the world established, taxation materially reduced, various local improvements inaugurated, and the city restored to her former prestige and importance.

The city is very picturesque when viewed from the river. The large warehouses along the bluff present a fine appearance. There is a fine park in the centre of the city. The streets are regular and broad. There are numerous handsome residences, with fine lawns and gardens. The river is deep enough to float the largest ships. The trade of Memphis is about \$75,000,000 per annum. About 70 vessels of all kinds belong to the port. It is a progressive city, and is now looked on as the coming commercial centre of the Southwest. Population in 1870, 40,226; 1880, 33,592; 1885, 45,000; 1889, 75,000.

CITY OF PETERSBURG.



PETERSBURG is a port of entry of Virginia, on the south bank of the Appomattox River, 12 miles above its junction with James River, at City Point. It is 23 miles south of Richmond. Five railways contribute to make it the third city in the State in respect of population. Petersburg is well built. It contains churches of the Presbyterians,

Methodists, Episcopalians, Baptists, and Catholics. There are here several cotton and woollen factories, forges, and numerous mills, to which the falls in the river furnish extensive power. In the campaign of 1864, Lieutenant-General Grant, commander of the Federal army, failing to take Richmond, besieged Petersburg, and was repulsed in several attacks by General Robert E. Lee, with heavy loss. Ample evidences of the operations in the vicinity are still to be seen. A leading point visited by tourists is the battle-field beyond Blandford church, where upon the brow of the hill, overlooking the ravine which separated the opposing forces, is the confused yellow mass known as the "Crater" or mine, which was tunnelled by Union sappers and miners, and blown up in order to effect a breach in the Confederate line of defences. Many relics may be found around this portion of the field still. One turns with relief from a contemplation of this scene to the beautiful old ruin of Blandford church, a mossy relic long before the struggle between the North and South. Its hallowed churchyard contains the tombs of the bravest and best among the early people of colonial Virginia.

Petersburg is the junction point with the Norfolk & Western Railroad leading to Suffolk and Portsmouth, opposite Norfolk. A side trip may be made by this route to Fortress Monroe, which, together with Newport News, has grown into a great winter and spring coast resort. In journeying swiftly southward through the great pine forests of North Carolina the tourist begins to realize the balmy influence and delightful somnolence that betokens his approach to the land of spring. It is a temptation not to be resisted to open the window and lean contentedly back in a delicious *dolce far niente*, noting with listless interest the odd and amusing phases of life and types of Southern character to be seen at the railroad stations. Population in 1870, 18,950; in 1880, 21,000; and in 1889, 25,000.

CITY OF DENVER.



ENVER, the principal commercial city and capital of Colorado, is situated on the South Platte River, 15 miles east of the Rocky Mountains. Six railroads connect it with various parts of the continent. It is 5,203 feet above sea level, occupying several levels ascending gradually toward the mountains. It commands a grand view of peaks cov-

ered with perpetual snow. Its commercial and manufacturing interests are making great strides, and its population is rapidly increasing. The climate is remarkable for its salubrity, and in winter the weather is generally mild. Between July and October there is scarcely any rain, and owing to the extreme rarity of the atmosphere Long's Peak (14,056 feet high), over 70 miles distant, Gray's Peak, (14,251), further south and opposite the city on the west, and Pike's Peak (14,216), 76 miles distant, can be clearly discerned from the city. In 1858 the place was uninhabited. Now there are numerous fine public buildings, various manufactories, numerous smelting and refining works, a United States Mint, and many solid business structures. Its growth is re-



CITY OF DENVER.

markable. It has six national and five other banks, and ranked next to Brooklyn (1889) as a city of churches, with sixty-seven. The Denver & Rio Grande Railroad has its eastern terminus here, and the Denver & South Park and Pacific Railroad connect it with Leadville, a city settled about 1880, and having a population of 27,000 in 1889. Leadville is situated over 10,000 feet above the sea, and is surrounded with rich silver mines, the product of which in one year was estimated at \$10,000,000. The entire State is pre-eminently a mineral district, and to this owes its wonderful growth. In some parts of Colorado there are occasional storms of wind and hail; otherwise, "an air more delicious to breathe cannot anywhere be found." The population of Denver in 1870 was 4,759; in 1880, 35,000; and in 1889, 100,000.

CITY OF CHARLESTON.



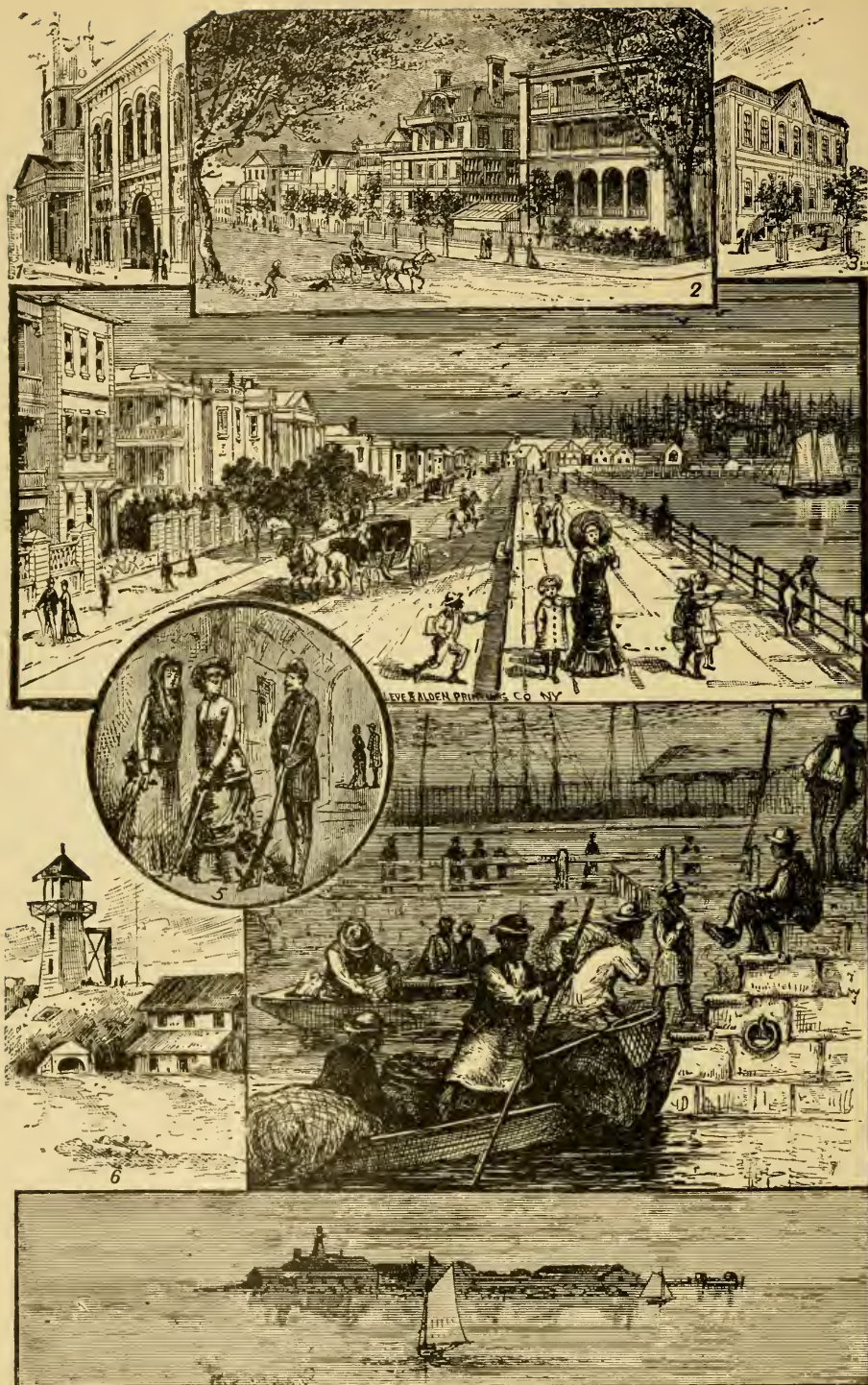
CHARLESTON is the largest city and commercial emporium of South Carolina, and is one of the most important cities of the South. Columbia, which is situated on the Congaree River, 130 miles from Charleston, is the capital of the State, and has a population of 12,000. Charleston, which is a fine city and seaport, is situated between the Ashley and Cooper Rivers, which here form a spacious harbor, extending 7 miles to the Atlantic. The city occupies about $5\frac{1}{2}$ square miles, and has a water front of about 10 miles. The commerce consists mostly of exports. The foreign commerce comprises exports to the value of about \$23,000,000 annually, and imports to the amount of



CHARLESTON.

\$150,000; of the exports about \$18,000,000 are in cotton. There is also a large commerce with the ports of the United States. The manufactures as compared with the commerce are unimportant. They consist principally of fertilizers from phosphates obtained in the vicinity. The wholesale trade in dry-goods, boots and shoes, hats, caps, clothing, etc., is extensive. There are 12 banks, and 3 railroads terminate here. There is also a canal which connects with the Santee River.

An atmosphere of interest, such as attaches to no other city of the South will always seem perceptible to the stranger in Charleston. This is due to the important events that, forming the overture of a long and terrible war,



VIEWS IN AND AROUND THE CITY OF CHARLESTON, S. C.

1. Institute Hall, 1861. 2. Characteristic Street Scene. 3. City Hall. 4. East Battery Promenade.
5. Entrance to Fort Sumter—registering names. 6. Interior of Fort Sumter.
7. Fisherman's Basin. 8. Fort Sumter.

had their scene of action here. The scars of those [days are still visible in many portions of the city, and to a still greater extent down the harbor, where the shapeless heap of stone and brick still gathers the mold of Time, where the gallant band that held Fort Sumter passed through their "baptism of fire." A week may be well spent by a stranger amid the attractions of this charming and hospitable city.

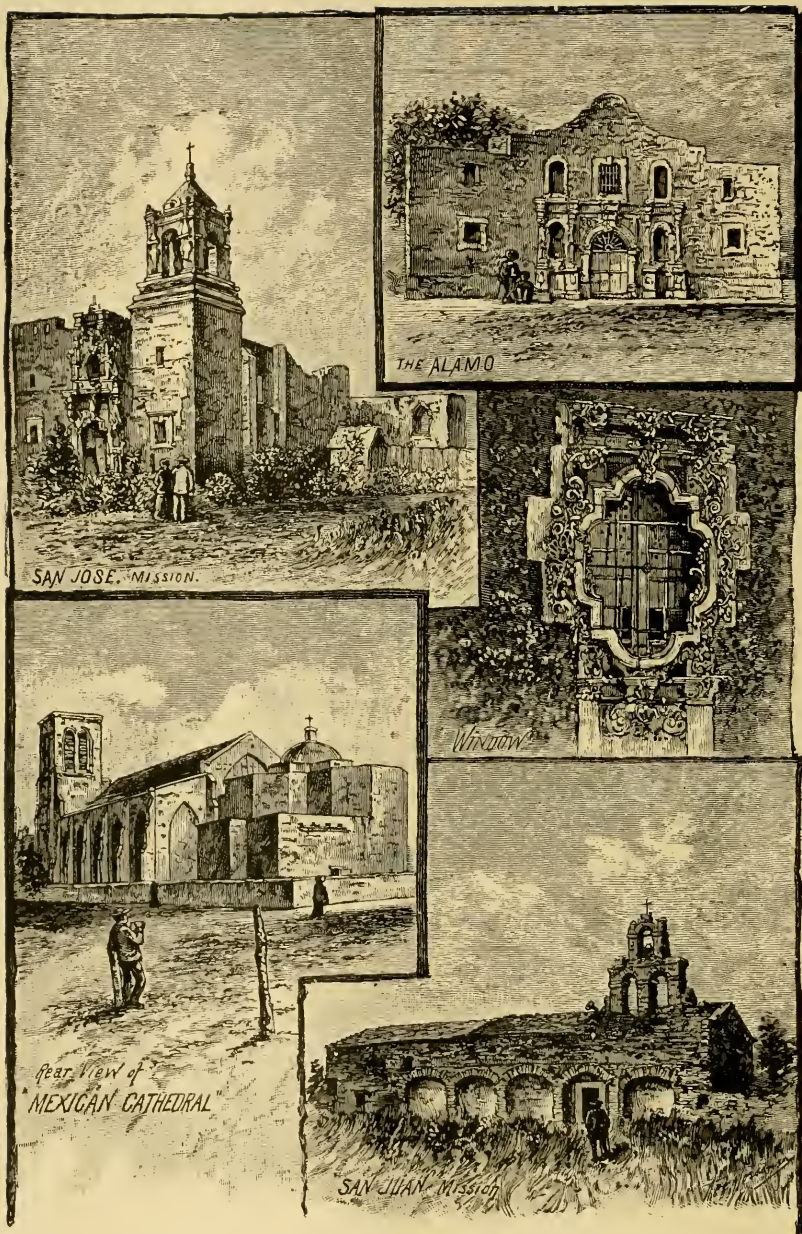
The battery, where many of the finest homes of the city front on the harbor, is a shady, well-kept place. St. Michael's spire, always open to visitors, gives a superb view of the city and harbor, with the surf breaking beyond historic Morris Island. The Mount Pleasant & Sullivan's Island Ferry Company run frequent boats to Sullivan's Island, where Fort Moultrie stands. A small boat will take the curious stranger over to Fort Sumter. Just beside the gateway of Fort Moultrie, enclosed by a small iron railing, is the grave of Ocoila the Seminole, who once figured so prominently in national history—an implacable, proud, thoroughbred Indian, who died a prisoner within these walls. Magnolia Cemetery is well worthy of a visit, with its graves of Gadsden, Rutledge, Pinckney, and Calhoun. The Magnolia Gardens, upon the Ashley River, about 20 miles from the city, form one of the most lovely spots in the South. It is reached either by the daily excursion steamers or by train.

A pleasant side trip may be made from Yemassee, the junction of the Augusta & Port Royal Railroad, while *en route* between Charleston and Savannah to Port Royal and the ancient city of Beaufort; the former has developed a large shipping trade within a few years, and the latter enjoys the advantage of a good hotel. Population of Charleston in 1889, 60,000.

CITY OF SAN ANTONIO.



SAN ANTONIO is a city of Texas, 110 miles southwest of Austin. It is one of the oldest Spanish towns in America. No city in the Union is so peculiarly interesting as San Antonio. There are seven Catholic churches, in which services are held in the English, Spanish, French, German, and Polish languages. Mexicans jostle against Indians, and John Chinaman washes the linen of the commercial traveller. Visitors can eat at night on the plaza the strangely-made dishes prepared by the natives of Mexico. Strangers, while making purchases of curiosities in the shops,

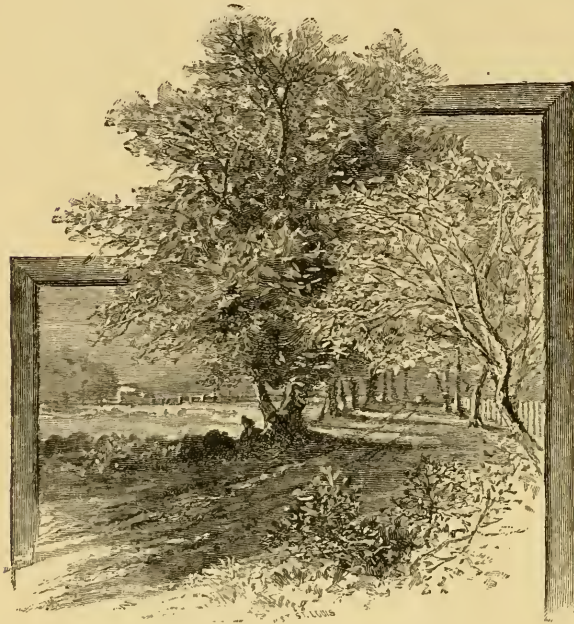


MEXICAN ANTIQUITIES IN SAN ANTONIO, TEXAS.



PICTURESQUE FEATURES OF SAN ANTONIO, TEXAS.

wonder at the massive thickness of the walls, and hear, with surprise, that 200 years ago or more the Spanish troops found shelter there from the attacks of



GARDEN STREET, SAN ANTONIO, TEXAS.

the Indians. It is a strange country, within five days' rail from New York, and when travellers pause there a little for rest, while *en route* to California and Mexico, they will find that it is unnecessary to visit Europe in quest of quaint old vestiges of a past generation.

It is the seat of Bexar County, Texas, and is situated on the San Pedro and San Antonio Rivers. The principal business streets are Commerce and Market, which run parallel from the principal square. The business por-

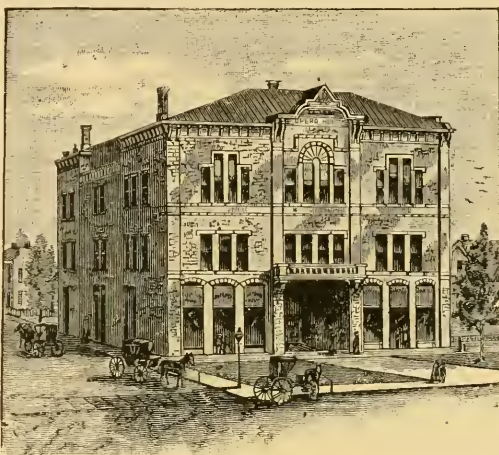
tion has been mostly rebuilt since 1860. About one-third of the population are Germans, and one-third Mexicans. It comprises three divisions, the city proper, between the rivers; Alamo, which is east of the San Antonio River; and Chihuahua, which is west of the San Pedro River. Alamo is mostly occupied by Germans, while the Mexican quarter is in Chihuahua. In the city proper there are many fine business buildings. In the Mexican quarter the houses are mostly built of stone and wood, and are only one story high.



VIEW AT SAN PEDRO SPRINGS, NEAR SAN ANTONIO.

There is a public park on the banks of the San Pedro. The city contains an arsenal, a Roman Catholic Cathedral, college, and convent, a Court-house, and banks. It is a centre of trade for the outlying country, the principal productions of which are wool, cotton, hides, and cattle. It has very important and growing manufactures, and considerable water-power. The manufacturing industries include extensive flour-mills, breweries, ice factories, etc. Invalids find the climate of San Antonio very desirable, as it is mild and genial.

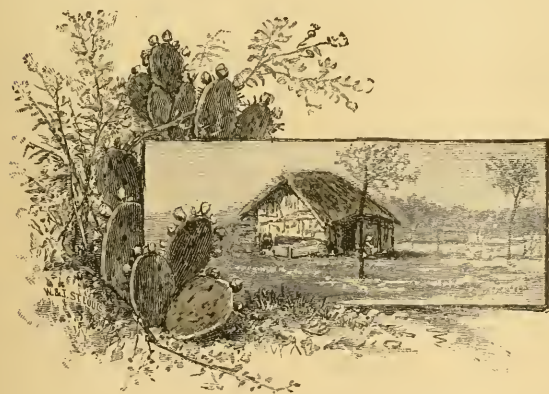
The city is now well provided with railroad connections. It is on the line of the International and Great Northern R. R., which is a part of the vast network of roads known as the Missouri Pacific Railway system, a fact which lends much significance to the future possibilities of the city. San Antonio is also touched by the Galveston, Harrisburg and San Antonio Railway and the San Antonio and Avansas Pass Railway. Railroad



OPERA HOUSE, SAN ANTONIO.

travel is rapidly introducing a new civilization into the midst of the life of the quaint old city, and the mingling of its incongruous elements often furnishes scenes interesting and picturesque.

The place was settled by the Spaniards in 1714. In the Texan Revolution of 1836 it was the scene of the massacre of the Alamo, when a garrison



MEXICAN JACAL, NEAR SAN ANTONIO.

of 150 men, led by Colonel Travis, and including David Crockett, were surrounded by several thousand Mexicans, and, after a heroic resistance, killed to the last man. Population in 1889, 50,000.

CITY OF JACKSONVILLE.



JACKSONVILLE, Florida, is situated on the St. John's River. It is a flourishing city and the metropolis of the State. It is much resorted to by Northern invalids on account of the salubrity of its climate. In Jacksonville everybody seems on the move. Its street-corners are built up with hotels, and shops, and ticket-offices. It is a mart, and the sick man must needs partake of the excitement if he stops here. Perhaps he needs diverting; if so, let him stay. If rest is sought, he will do better to go up the river to some of the smaller points. Jacksonville has a score of hotels and a legion of boarding-houses. One-half of the population waits upon the other half. Bay Street, extending for a mile or more along the river, is built up closely, some of the structures being large and costly. The hotels are chiefly of wood, and those erected 1880-89 have all the elegance and conveniencies of the most noted metropolitan caravanseries. The population of the city in 1880 was 18,000; in 1889 35,444. It is a growing city, and great excitement prevails in the winter, when the place is full of invalids, not only from the North, but from various parts of the globe.

In August and September of 1888 the city and vicinity were visited by the yellow fever scourge; many persons were stricken down with it, and a large number died. Much suffering and privation were endured. The city was quarantined by the National Government in order to prevent the disease from spreading to other parts of the country. The inhabitants become frightfully alarmed and many left the city. Camps were established to receive the fugitives, where they were compelled to remain a certain length of time for purposes of fumigation before being allowed to proceed to other parts; much heroism and self-sacrifice were displayed by the people who remained in the city. All parts of the country generously responded with financial aid. Trained nurses and doctors from every part of the Union freely offered their services, which were cordially accepted. The most strenuous efforts were made to prevent the disease from spreading, but only the cold weather brought the needed relief. It is believed that the result of this terrible experience will be to cause the local authorities to put Jacksonville on a better health footing than it has ever before possessed, as the most thorough

means known to science have been employed to prevent a repetition of this terrible epidemic.

Tallahassee is the capital of the State, and has a population of 4,000; St. Augustine, 3,000. Key West is built on an island of the same name, and has a population of about 10,000. Pensacola has a population of about 7,000, which is about the same population as Fernandina contains. The productions of Florida consist of lumber, cotton, rice, cocoanuts, tobacco, sugar-cane, arrow-



BAY STREET, JACKSONVILLE.

root, hemp, flax, coffee, oranges, lemons, bananas, limes, olives, grapes, and pineapples, which grow in great quantities and are of very fine flavor. Among the other products may be mentioned Indian corn, beans, sweet potatoes, peas, Irish potatoes, barley, buckwheat, hops, etc.

Many of the people of the State have grown wealthy on the cultivation and export of oranges and other fruits. The manufacture of what is known as "Key West cigars" is an important industry, and has done much for the

people of Key West. Game and fish are to be found in great quantities in all parts of the State. In the forests, rivers, and swamps deer, wild turkeys, partridges, geese, ducks, and other game abound in great quantities. On all the coasts can be found green turtle, oysters, sheepshead, red fish, and mullet; and in all of the inland waters can be found fresh-water fish in great variety. Sponges of a fine quality can be found in great quantities along the reefs, and are a considerable part of the trade. The pasturage of the savannahs is unexcelled, cattle requiring very little attention, and are seldom housed in the winter. Key West was nearly destroyed by fire in the spring of 1886.

CITY OF WILMINGTON.



WILMINGTON is the principal commercial centre in Delaware; it is a port of entry and the largest city in the State. It is situated at the junction of Christiana and Brandywine Creeks, 28 miles from Philadelphia on the Philadelphia, Wilmington and Baltimore railroad, and is the terminus of the Wilmington and Reading, and the Wilmington and Western railroads. The buildings are mostly of brick, and the streets meet at right angles. Among the public buildings are the City Hall, Post-office, Custom-house, the Library and Institute, the Opera-house, and a large hospital. The city was first settled in 1730 and incorporated in 1832. It has about 50 churches, numerous public schools, academies, banks, newspapers, a good fire department, police system, gas works, and street railroads.

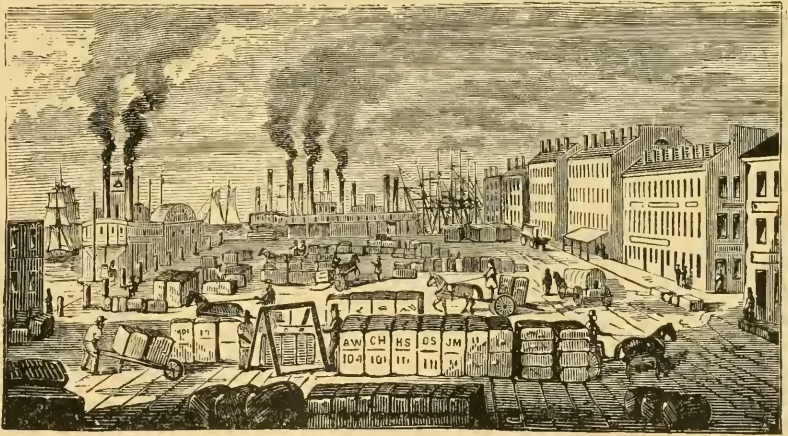
The manufactures consist of iron steamships, railroad cars, locomotives, carriages, paper, powder, agricultural implements, machinery, cotton and woollen goods, flour, boots and shoes, leather, and bricks, which are produced in great quantities. The annual products of the various factories have been estimated at \$30,000,000.

Wilmington is a very handsome city, and has many picturesque water views. Its commerce with local cities is extensive. Its foreign exports and imports are mostly conducted through Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York. Population, in 1870, 31,000; in 1880, 42,500; in 1889, 57,000.

CITY OF MOBILE.



MOBILE is the only seaport and the largest city of Alabama. It is situated on a beautiful plain, on the west side of Mobile River, at its entrance to Mobile Bay, which opens into the Gulf of Mexico. It is 141 miles from New Orleans, and 180 miles from Montgomery, the capital of the State. The city, which is elevated 16 feet above the highest tides, rises gradually from the river, and is laid out with fine, broad, shaded streets. It was originally settled in 1702 by the French, and for years it was the most important place in the Louisiana district. It was visited by famines and by epidemics. At this period the settlement was located about eight miles south of its present site. In 1706 the women of the place, being dissatisfied with Indian corn as the principal



A SCENE IN MOBILE.

article of food, revolted. This was known as the "Petticoat Insurrection." The place was nearly destroyed in 1711 by a hurricane and flood; the people then decided to move with their effects to a more desirable location, and selected the present site of the city. In 1763, at the Treaty of Paris, the city was ceded to Great Britain. After remaining in the possession of the British about 20 years it was ceded to Spain. In the War of 1812 it was surrendered to General Wilkinson. It was incorporated as a city in 1819, and during the Civil War was in the possession of the Confederates. Admiral Farragut with his fleet sailed up Mobile Bay in August, 1864, and the renowned engagement with the forts and the enemy's fleet took place on the 5th; the latter was destroyed or captured, and the forts surrendered. The

remaining fortifications were carried by assault, and early in the following year the city surrendered.

Mobile is lighted by gas and electricity, has numerous lines of street railroads, and several railroads connect it with all parts of the country. It has a fine Custom-house and Post-office, City Hall and market-house, theatre, Odd Fellows' hall, cathedral, 30 churches, four orphan asylums, several hospitals, a medical college, St. Joseph's College (a Jesuit institution), a Convent of the Visitation, and academy for young ladies. Mobile has several ship-yards, foundries, and cotton-presses. The chief business is the export of cotton, timber, and naval stores.

Mobile Bay is a handsome sheet of water, about 30 miles in length and about 12 miles wide; vessels drawing more than $16\frac{1}{2}$ or 17 feet of water cannot reach the city except at high tide; but improvements were nearly completed in 1889 to insure a depth of 22 feet and a width of 200 feet. Its cotton trade is only exceeded in the South by New Orleans, its exports of cotton for one year amounting to nearly \$6,000,000, while its total exports were nearly \$7,000,000; the imports are over \$500,000 annually. There is a line of steamers between Mobile and Liverpool, and numerous vessels and steamboats engage in the river and coast-trade. Its traffic in naval stores and lumber is extensive. The city extends along the river five or six miles, and runs back about a mile and a half. Population, 1889, 40,000.

CITY OF NASHVILLE.



NASHVILLE, the capital of Tennessee, is situated on the Cumberland River, 235 miles from its mouth, with steamboat navigation of over 400 miles above the city. It was made the State capital in 1826. The State House is a very handsome building, built of Tennessee stone, quarried within 300 yards of the building. It is located on an abrupt eminence in the centre of the city. It is 112 by 239 feet, and is 206 feet to the top of tower. The corner-stone was laid July 4, 1845, and first occupied by the Legislature, October 3, 1853. The total cost was \$1,500,000. The architect and the chairman of the building committee were by act of Legislature honored with burial in vaults constructed within the walls of the northeast and southeast corners.

Nashville is a handsome city, built on a series of hills affording ample drainage, and is noted for its enterprise, almost unparalleled growth since the war, and the culture and hospitality of its citizens. It is divided by the Cumberland River, which is spanned at this point by a new iron truss bridge, 639 feet long, 55 feet 7 inches wide, and double roadway. It has a very advantageous and well-arranged system of railroad facilities, and is the largest commercial city in the State. The amount of capital invested on January 1, 1884, in the four leading cities in the State was \$10,865,000, of which Nashville had \$4,995,500, being nearly double either the others. There were 2,670 business firms and companies, of which 708 were engaged in manufacturing. The wholesale trade of the city gave employment to about 700 commercial travellers. There were 120 incorporated companies and 10 street-car lines. There were employed within the limits of the post-office carrier delivery—not including railroad shops—about 5,300 mechanics and skilled workmen. There are 3 cotton factories—one of which employs over 800 hands—and a woollen factory. This is the first hardwood lumber market in the United States, and the fifth general lumber market, having 25 saw and planing mills, and 33 firms engaged in the lumber business. It is the fifth boot and shoe market in the United States; the largest candy and cracker manufacturing city in the South, and does an enormous wholesale dry-goods, grocery, and drug business. In stoves and hollow-ware, Nashville's manufactures have a good trade as far west as California and north to Chicago, and have recently secured profitable Government contracts in competition with the best Northern and Eastern houses. Its flouring mills have a daily capacity of about 1,800 barrels. It has a fine electric fire alarm and about 200 Brush lights. The local telephone exchange has 2,100 miles of wire in the city, supplying 1,300 telephones within the city limits, besides giving connection with 132 towns in Middle Tennessee. There is a fine electric time system, furnishing standard time from a central clock, with a service of 375 clocks, and is rapidly increasing. The banking capital in national banks is \$3,100,000, besides several private banks. The individual deposits in the national banks average over \$4,000,000. The latest taxable valuation of property gives \$570 to each inhabitant. The iron interests of the South are largely controlled here, one concern alone representing \$10,000,000 capital employed in making coke and iron in Tennessee and Northern Alabama.

An eminent geologist and mineralogist has said, that "if a circle were drawn around Nashville with a radius of 120 miles, and paths made to each

degree of the circle, 110 of them would pass over inexhaustible and easily available deposits of iron."

Among the prominent public buildings are the Court-house, 3 universities, hospital, Custom house and Post-office, county jail, market-house, 2 theatres, a Masonic Temple, an Opera-house, State penitentiary, Free academy, Protestant and Catholic orphan asylums; 64 churches, of 12 denominations, 47 white and 17 colored; 47 daily, weekly, and monthly publications. The educational facilities are unsurpassed in the South. The Fisk University for colored teachers was founded in 1867, the Central Tennessee College for colored students in 1866, and the Vanderbilt University, named after the late Commodore Vanderbilt, in 1875. The Nashville Medical College and numerous other institutions, including a State and Public Library, the Roger Williams University, academies, seminaries, private schools, and business colleges, adorn the city. It has an extensive public-school system, with 10 large buildings accommodating 6,000 white children, and 4 buildings accommodating 2,000 colored children. The value of public school buildings is \$230,000. Near the city are the State Lunatic Asylum, and the "Hermitage," once the residence of President Jackson. Nashville was occupied by the Federal troops in 1862, and here the Federal General Thomas gained a victory over the Confederate General Hood in December, 1864.

The city is noted for its handsome private residences. A very extensive system of water-works supplies the city with pure water from the river. The place was first settled in 1779; incorporated as a city in 1806. Population in 1870, 25,865; 1880, 43,000; 1889, 85,000.

CITY OF SAVANNAH.



SAVANNAH is a fine city and port of entry of Georgia. It is situated on the right bank of the Savannah River, 18 miles from its mouth, and 90 miles from Charleston. It is greater than Mobile or Charleston as a port of commerce, and it is the largest port for shipment of naval stores in the United States. The principal trade of the State centres at this point, and consists mainly of cotton, rice, and lumber. Great facilities are afforded by the Savannah River for internal commerce. A canal, 16 miles long, connects this river with the Ogeechee River. Nearly

1,000 vessels enter and clear the port annually, with an aggregate tonnage of nearly 1,250,000.

Savannah is the *beau-ideal* of an old-time Southern town. The visitor will fall in love with the shady vistas of the streets, and remember with pleasure the parks set with monuments that alternate the squares. Bonaventure Cemetery is at once the saddest, yet most charming spot one will encounter in a year of travel. The great live-oaks stretch their witch-like arms and join hands across the avenues, while from every branch and twig, like drapings of woe, depends the long and swaying Spanish gray moss. The Savannah hotels are large and well kept. The visitor will find a great deal at the rooms of the Georgia Historical Society to interest him. The scenes among the warehouses and clusters of shipping are extremely animated.

Savannah is the terminal station of several railroads. The climate is very pleasant



A VIEW OF SAVANNAH IN FORMER DAYS.

in winter, and is not considered unhealthy at any season. The city has a fine harbor, and the river is navigable as far as Augusta. It is built on a sandy plain, 40 feet above the river, with broad streets shaded by beautiful trees. Its chief edifices are the Custom-house, City Exchange, Court-house, State Arsenal, theatre, St. Andrews' hall, Oglethorpe hall, market, three hospitals, asylums, and Masonic Hall, where in 1861 the ordinance of secession was passed. The exports are about \$50,500,000, consisting of cotton, rice, lumber, etc. The cotton exported annually amounts to 850,000 bales; imports, \$1,000,000. Vessels of upward of 22 feet draught discharge and load three miles below the harbor.

Savannah is surrounded by marshes and islands, and on the river side is defended by Forts Pulaski and Jackson. It was founded in 1733 by the

English General Oglethorpe. In 1776, a British fleet, attempting to take the town, was repulsed after a severe action; but it was taken in 1778, and held in 1786 against the combined French and American forces. In the late war, after many unsuccessful attacks by sea, it was taken by General Sherman in February, 1865. As a cotton port it is subordinate to New Orleans only. The manufactures are not important, and consist of the products of foundries, planing and flouring mills, and a large cotton-mill.

In the park is a Confederate monument; and in Johnson Square an obelisk to the memory of General Greene and Count Pulaski. The Pulaski monument in Monterey Square is 55 feet high, of marble, surmounted by a statue of Liberty, and is considered one of the finest works of the kind in the Union. The city has 35 churches, a Public Library, Historical Society, several banks, and an excellent school system. It has had two great fires, one in 1796 (loss, \$1,000,000), the other in 1820 (loss over \$4,000,000). Its police and fire departments are very efficient; the latter is now a paid department, reinforced by "call men."

In Georgia the tops of the hills are mostly covered with forests of pine, oak, palmetto, ash, hickory, cypress, black-walnut, cedar, and mulberry. The agricultural products of the State are cotton, wheat and other grain, maize, tobacco, sugar-cane, indigo, rice, etc. Cotton is one of the great articles of commerce, as is also tobacco, indigo, canes, timber, maize, and deer-skins. The population of Savannah in 1880 was 33,000, and in 1889, 52,827—29,136 white, 23,691 colored.

CITY OF ATLANTA.



TLANTA is a port of entry, a fine city, and the capital of Georgia.

It is called the "Gate City." It is destined to be a city of great importance, as it is the terminus of all the railroads of the State.

There is little of the conventional South about Atlanta. The energy, persistence, and phenomenal growth of this city have won for it the *sobriquet* of the "Chicago of the South." Its streets are laid out, or perhaps we should say wander, with a freedom from relation to the cardinal points of the compass, which should make Boston envious; but they are bright, wide, and shady



CITY OF ATLANTA.

1. Ponce de Leon Spring. 2. U. S. Custom House and Post Office. 3. In the Commercial Quarter.
4. Union Depot. 5. Peachtree Street.

streets. There is not a prettier avenue anywhere in the land than Peach-tree Street, which bears the same relation to Atlanta that Euclid Avenue does to Cleveland. The surrounding country, besides being rich in grain and cotton, contains gold, iron, and other valuable minerals.

The large negro population and the heavy traffic in cotton are almost the only features which proclaim Atlanta as a Southern centre. As the city has been chiefly rebuilt since the war, the prevalent styles of architecture are modern and pleasing. The United States Custom-house and Post-office is a handsome structure in the heart of the city. Upon Washington and other leading streets there are many large and costly churches of several denominations.

Atlanta was destroyed by General Sherman, November, 1864. After the war Atlanta speedily recovered from her almost complete ruin, and within two years had as great a population as when the war began. It became the capital of the State in 1868. Among the public institutions are the Oglethorpe University, the Clark Theological School (colored Methodist), the North Georgia Female College, the Atlanta Medical College, the Atlanta University for colored students, the State Library, Young Men's Library, and the State Technical School.

From the high ground occupied by the McPherson barracks, in the north-western portion of the city, a very fine outlook upon the city's environment may be had. Not far away is Kennesaw Mountain, the scene of much sanguinary fighting, and away to the north are the pale outlines of the Tennessee mountains, famed through the names of Lookout, Mission Ridge, Chickamauga, and Chattanooga. Within the limits of the city and in its immediate vicinage are many huge yellow mounds, portions of the cordon of defences which extended around the city, upon which the grass has never grown. Atlanta is built on an elevated plateau, 1,100 feet above tide-water, and is singularly dry, cool, and healthy.

Atlanta, unlike her sedate sister cities of the South, owes her rapid growth and commercial importance to her favorable position and her great spirit of enterprise. Her railroads have direct lines to all sections of the country. In the last ten years it has grown rapidly, and given great impetus to the new industries of the South. It has vast cotton-mills, and immense iron rolling-mills; these give employment to a large number of persons. Population, 1889, 75,000.

CITY OF ROCHESTER.



ROCHESTER is a commercial city and port of entry, situated on both sides of the Genesee River, 7 miles south of its entrance into Lake Ontario. It is the capital of Monroe County. It is 230 miles from Albany. It is located on an elevated site, which covers about 17 square miles.

Its streets are shaded, and generally from 50 to 100 feet wide. It is the terminus of the Rochester & Pittsburg and numerous other railroads. It is crossed by the Erie Canal and the New York Central Railroad. Owing to its advantageous situation it has grown very rapidly; by means of the Genesee it has easy access to the lakes, while its railroads and canals give it communication with the fertile country by which it is surrounded; besides, it has an immense advantage in water-power. The numerous falls of the Genesee River within its boundaries amount to 268 feet in perpendicular height. The upper falls of the Genesee, a cataract of 96 feet, are in the centre of the city; a mile or two below are two other falls, one 84 feet and the other 25. The river runs through a deep gorge 210 feet high. As a result of this immense water-power it has become one of the principal markets of the flour trade, and has some of the largest flour-mills in the Union, besides numerous other extensive manufacturing establishments.

Rochester was settled in 1810, and incorporated as a village in 1817. It was first laid out by Nathaniel Rochester, an American pioneer. It was incorporated as a city in 1834. The city is very handsome and well built. The canal crosses the river on a fine aqueduct containing seven arches. Main Street is the principal thoroughfare and promenade. It is in the centre of the city, and crosses the river, which is spanned by a substantial bridge.

Among the principal buildings may be mentioned the County Court-house; the City Hall, with a tower 175 feet high; the high-school building, the Powers block, and the Warren Astronomical Observatory, the finest private observatory in the world. The University of Rochester occupies large buildings in the eastern part of the city. It was founded by the Baptists in 1850, and the grounds, consisting of 23 acres, are beautifully laid out. There are about 70 churches, a fine public-school system employing over 200 teachers, nearly 50 public and private schools, a theological seminary, an athenæum, hospitals, and reformatory. The nursery trade of Rochester has assumed vast proportions, and is not surpassed by that of any other place in the world.

Mount Hope Cemetery is beautifully laid out, and is an ornament to the city. The population of Rochester was, in 1820, 1,502; in 1840, 20,191; in 1860, 48,243; in 1870, 62,386; in 1880, 89,363; and in 1889, 125,000.

CITY OF UTICA.



UTICA is a city of New York and county seat of Oneida County. It is situated at the junction of the Erie and Chenango canals on the Mohawk River. It is 95 miles west-northwest of Albany. The city, regularly and handsomely built, rises from the south bank of the river on a gradual elevation, the ground generally being level. Among its buildings are a City Hall, United States Court-house and Post-office, opera-house, public halls, 34 churches, large hotels, banks, cotton-mills, woollen-mills, a State Lunatic asylum, Catholic and Protestant orphan asylums, academies, and schools. There are 11 newspapers and periodicals, of which 2 are Welsh and 1 German. In 1813 it had a population of 1,700. It was incorporated as a city in 1832. At the period of the Revolution Utica was a frontier trading-post, and the site of Fort Schuyler, built to guard the settlements against the French and Indians.

It is connected with various parts of the country by the New York Central, the Utica & Black River, and the Delaware, Lackawanna & Western railroads. Its principal business street is very handsome, and contains fine substantial blocks of buildings. It impresses a stranger with being a live, active place. It covers an area of four square miles; has numerous public parks, a public library, and a mechanics' association; is the centre of a rich dairy and farming district; and is the largest cheese market in America. Its manufactures consist of clothing, steam-engines, boots and shoes, pianos, agricultural implements, cotton and woollen goods, carriages, carpets, etc. Population, 1880, 34,000; 1889, 50,000.

CITY OF GALVESTON.



GALVESTON is the most important commercial city and seaport in Texas. It is situated in a county of the same name on Galveston Island, at the opening of Galveston Bay into the Gulf of Mexico. Its harbor is the finest in the State; it has 14 feet of water over the bar at



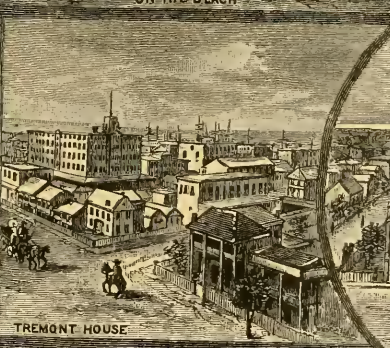
R.R. STATION



BATHING IN JANUARY



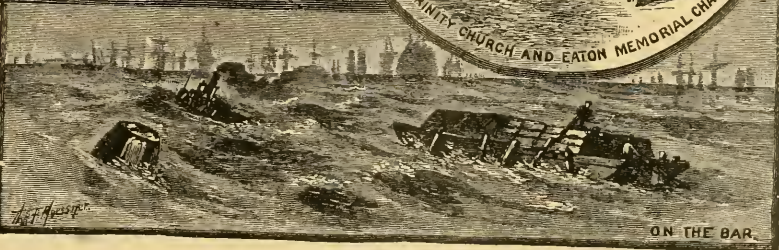
ON THE BEACH



TREMONT HOUSE



TRINITY CHURCH AND EATON MEMORIAL CHAPEL



ON THE BAR

GALVESTON.

low tide. The bay extends north to the mouth of Trinity River, a distance of 35 miles, and is 12 to 18 miles wide, and is a very handsome sheet of water. The island of Galveston is 28 miles in length, and from two to three miles wide. Its average elevation above the sea level is only 5 feet. The streets of the city are straight, spacious, and elegant; and its principal buildings—the Roman Catholic University of St. Mary's, the Roman Catholic Cathedral, and the Episcopal Church—are large, imposing edifices of brick in the Gothic style. Galveston has 18 churches, two libraries, a convent of Ursuline nuns, a medical college, an orphan asylum, hospitals, over 10 miles of street railway, and a number of schools of various kinds. It has railroads connecting it with all parts of the country, and is connected by steamship lines with Liverpool, New Orleans, New York, and the coast towns of Texas as far as Mexico, and by sailing vessels with countries in Europe, Mexico, the West Indies, and South America. The principal trade is the shipping of cotton (over 40 acres of ground are devoted to cotton presses and warehouses), hides, grain, pork, and beef. The foreign exports in one year amounted to nearly \$18,000,000, and the imports to about \$1,000,000. The city has good wharves, several ship-building yards, foundries, machine-shops, gas-works, railroad shops, daily and weekly newspapers, savings and national banks, etc. The island of Galveston was, from 1817 to 1821, the haunt of the pirate Lafitte, who was dislodged in the latter year. Population in 1870, 13,818; 1880, 26,000; 1889, 47,500.

CITY OF DAYTON.



DAYTON is one of the most prosperous and wealthy cities of Ohio. It is situated at the junction of the Miami and Mad Rivers. It is connected with Cincinnati, on the Ohio, by the Miami Canal—the distance being 52 miles. In the variety and extent of its manufactures Dayton stands foremost among Western towns in proportion to its size. Fine water-power is supplied by the river. The population has very rapidly increased. In 1850 it amounted to 10,976, having almost quadrupled within the preceding 20 years; in 1853 it had risen to 16,562, showing an addition of more than 50 per cent. in three years; in 1860 it amounted to 20,482; 1870 to 30,473; in 1880 to 38,000; and in 1889 to 46,800. It owes its prosperity chiefly to the great number of railroads centring here, among which are the Atlantic & Great Western; the Cincinnati, Hannibal & Dayton; the Cleveland, Col-

umbus, Cincinnati & Indianapolis; the Dayton & Union; the Pittsburgh, Cincinnati & St. Louis and several others. It has a fine Court-house, a Public Library, several newspapers, 53 churches, the National Home for Disabled Soldiers and Sailors, situated in fine grounds, and other institutions. Many of the private residences are very handsome, and have elegant grounds. The streets are broad and well paved, and include 36 macadamized roads with a total length of over 600 miles, radiating from the centre to the suburbs. The city is in the midst of a rich agricultural district, in which limestone quarries abound; had 7 national banks and one savings bank with an aggregate capital of \$2,930,000, and 8 insurance companies with a capital of \$1,200,000, in 1889; and its educational interests were promoted by a high school, 15 public schools, Cooper Seminary for Young Ladies (Presbyterian), St. Mary's Institute for Boys (Roman Catholic), and a preparatory school for boys.

CITY OF WHEELING.



HEELING is the largest city of West Virginia, a county seat, a port of entry, and the capital of the State. It is situated on the left bank of the Ohio River, at the entrance of Wheeling Creek, 60 miles by rail and 92 by river, below Pittsburg. It is the largest commercial city between Cincinnati and Pittsburg on the Ohio River. It extends 5 or 6 miles along the river on both sides of the creek. The city is built at the foot of the hills which rise to the Alleghanies, and is the terminus of the Baltimore and Ohio, and of the river division of the Cleveland and Pittsburg, and numerous other railroads. The great national road here crosses the Ohio, over which is a wire suspension bridge, 1,010 feet long.

Its manufacturing establishments are very extensive, and consist of iron foundries, glass works, blast-furnaces, forges, machine shops, paper-mills, cigar factories, flour-mills, ship yards, etc. About 500 vessels belong to the port. Large quantities of bituminous coal are mined in the hills in the vicinity.

The public buildings consist of the Custom-house, Post-office, and United States Court Chambers, which are combined in one; the State-house, the Opera-house, and Odd Fellows' Hall. There are 8 public schools, two seminaries, 22 churches, a public library, a college for women, and several charitable institutions. It is the centre of an important trade. The place was first settled in 1772, and incorporated as a city in 1806. Population in 1870, 20,000; in 1880, 31,000; in 1889, 37,000.

CITY OF READING.



READING is a city of Southeast Pennsylvania, on the left bank of the Schuylkill River, 58 miles northwest from Philadelphia, 55 miles northeast of Harrisburg; it is at the junction of the Union and Schuylkill Canals. Three fine bridges span the river. It was originally set off by Thomas and Rich Penn in 1748, and incorporated in 1847. The streets cross at right angles, and the city is handsomely laid out. The business portion contains fine buildings, erected with great regularity. It is the centre of a very productive farming district, and has a considerable wholesale and retail trade. It has a handsome Court-house, an Academy of Music, a jail, several hotels, banks, well-organized police and fire departments, numerous fire insurance companies, a public library, a Catholic academy, numerous public and private schools, a Catholic hospital, and several charitable institutions. It is pleasantly situated on an ascending plain, and is supplied with streams of pure water from a mountain behind it. Penn's Mount is on the east and Neversink Mountain on the south.

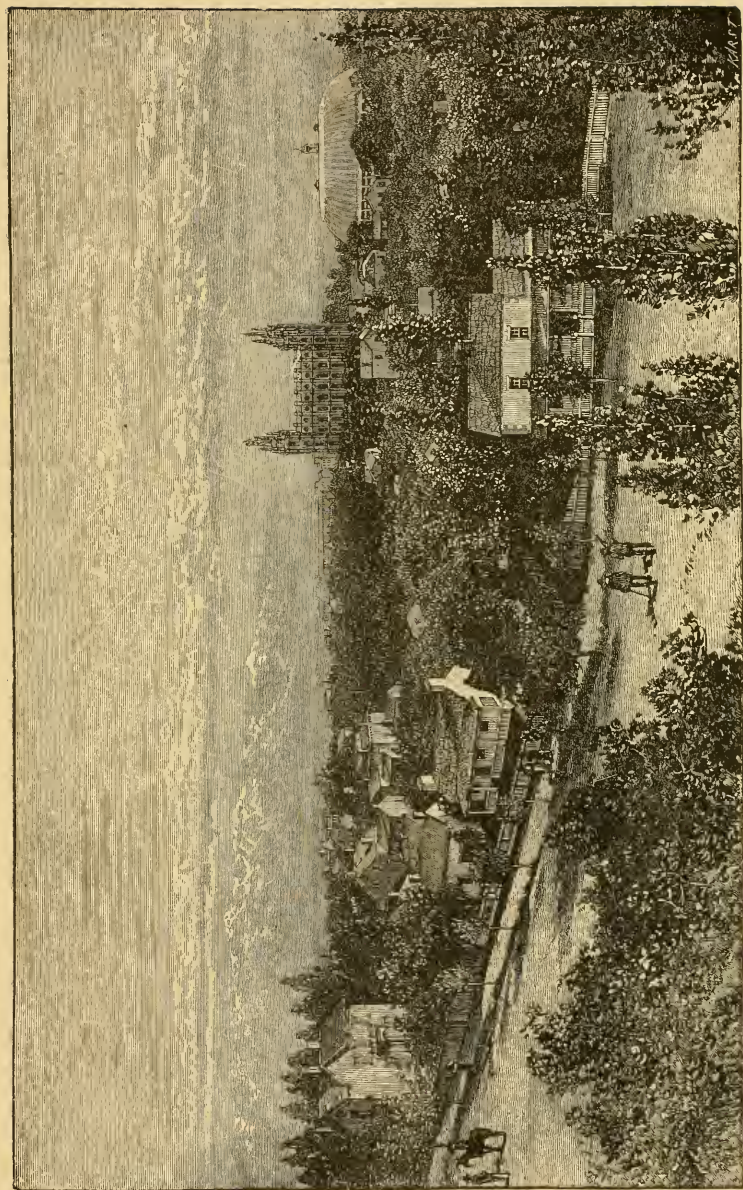
It publishes 12 newspapers. Its industries are rolling-mills, blast-furnaces, machine-shops, saw-mills, foundries, shoe factories, breweries, tanneries, railroad shops, manufactories of cigars, cottons, woollens, flour, nails, bricks, paper, etc.

It has an extensive trade in coal. Population in 1870, 34,000; in 1880, 43,300; in 1889, 51,000.

SALT LAKE CITY.



SALT LAKE CITY is the capital of Salt Lake County and of Utah Territory. It is situated at the foot of the Wahsatch Mountains, in an immense valley, 4,350 feet above the sea level, on the east bank of the River Jordan, between Lake Utah, which is a beautiful body of fresh water, and Great Salt Lake, the latter being 12 miles distant. The city is connected with Ogden, the junction of the Union Pacific and the Central Pacific Railroads, by the Utah Central Railroad, the distance being 36 miles. It is supposed that the valley in which Salt Lake City is situated was in prehistoric

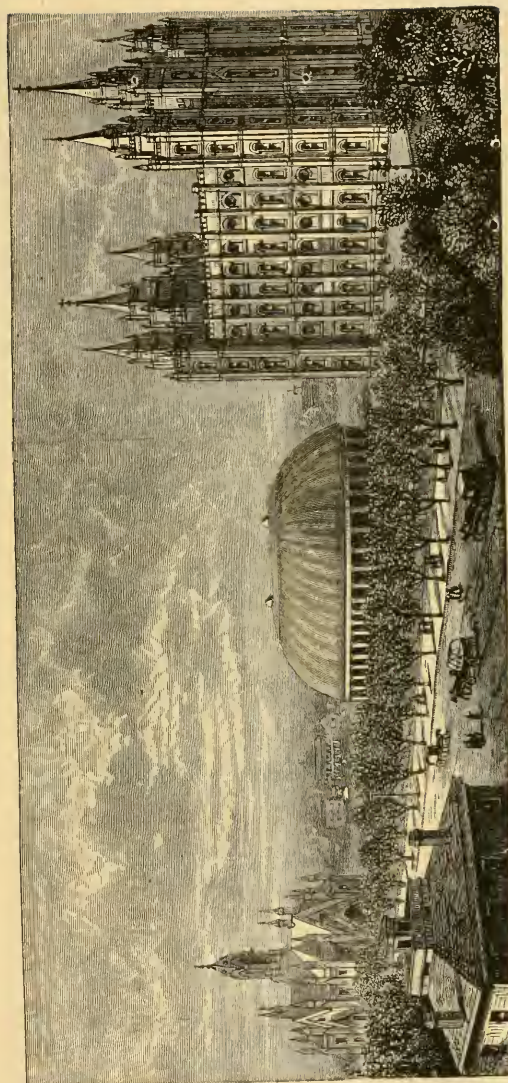


A VIEW OF SALT LAKE CITY.

times a sea, which by convulsions of nature has been changed from its original level. The soil still holds in solution the salt of the sea. The streets are 128 feet wide and shaded with trees, and cross at right angles, forming 260 squares of 10 acres each. Two streams of pure water from the neighboring mountains, some of them 10,000 feet high, flow through each street. The city is divided into 21 wards, each of which has a public square or common. No drones are permitted in the city, as the Mormons are very industrious. They never seem to tire of work or making converts to their faith, and bring large numbers of converts from all parts of Europe.

The "City of the Saints" was founded in 1847 by the Mormons, after a long and weary pilgrimage through forests and a wilderness that was far more extensive than that traversed by the descendants of Abraham after escaping from the bondage of Egypt. The dwelling-houses are chiefly built of adobes, or sun-dried bricks. Since the National Government has taken polygamy in hand polygamous wives are less numerous. The houses were generally built one story high, and were small; but latterly many elegant residences have been erected. Each little dwelling is surrounded by its garden and orchard. The plates from which was written the Book of Mormon were "discovered" in 1827 by Joseph Smith, who founded the "Church of Jesus Christ of Latter-Day Saints" in Manchester, N. Y. The church was afterwards removed to Ohio, Missouri, Illinois, Iowa, and finally to Utah. The church system of government is admirable, as it considers the interests of all, and were it not for the practice of polygamy, there could be little objection raised to the Mormons, who are only carrying out the doctrines of the Old Testament. The administration of the Edmunds law, passed by Congress in 1882, and which was followed in 1886 by a still more stringent measure (which dissolved and wound up the corporation of the Mormon Church, disposing of its property), put hundreds of Mormons in prison for terms varying from six months to three years, and made the practice of polygamy almost impossible, but it has seemingly neither destroyed nor shaken the Mormons' faith in the divinity of the principle of plural marriages. In 1889 President Cleveland pardoned several of the Mormon leaders then under sentence for polygamous practices.

The principal business streets are Main, South Temple, and First South streets, upon which there are several fine business blocks. Over one-fifth of the population are Gentiles and apostate Mormons, and since the laws of the United States against polygamy have been so rigorously enforced the latter are increasing. The city, which is not very imposing in appearance, is lighted



MORMON TEMPLE, TABERNACLE, AND ASSEMBLY HALL, SALT LAKE CITY.

with gas, and has numerous lines of horse railroads. The great Mormon Tabernacle, which is located on Temple Block, cost \$150,000, and seats 13,000 people. There are Catholic, Episcopal, Presbyterian, Methodist, and Congregational churches, a Public Library, Museum, City Hall, University, banks, hotels, halls, theatres, graded schools, newspapers, and periodicals. The city revenue amounts to about \$175,000 annually; its debt, contracted to dig a canal for irrigation, etc., amounts to \$225,000; its resources are more than



MAIN STREET, SALT LAKE CITY.

\$1,500,000; licenses for liquor selling cost \$1,200 per annum for each dram-shop.

Several railroads, placing Salt Lake City in communication with all principal points, tend to increase its commercial importance. The Utah Southern, the Utah Western, and the Utah Central, centre in Salt Lake City, and the Union and Central Pacific, the Denver and Rio Grande railroads,

connect with the city the two former having junctions at Ogdenburg and the latter by way of Provo City. The Denver and Rio Grande Railroad has opened up a very picturesque section of the country.

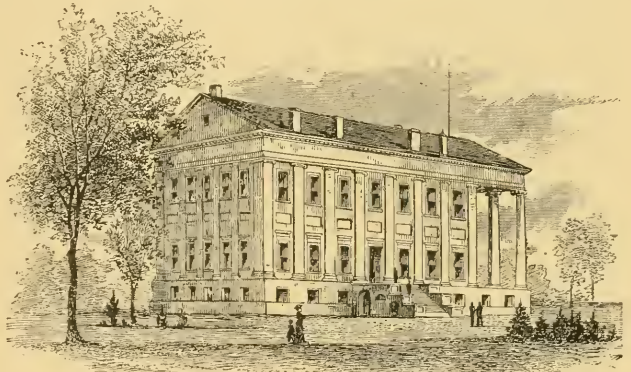
Salt Lake City is a growing centre of trade for the mining and agricultural districts. It is 650 miles from San Francisco, and 1,100 west of the Mississippi. The Warm Springs, which issue from a limestone rock at the foot of the mountains, are about one mile distant from the city, and are considered very beneficial to bathers. The Hot Springs are about a mile from this point. Population in 1860, 8,236; 1870, 12,854; 1880, 22,000; and in 1889, 30,000.

CITY OF RICHMOND.



RICHMOND is the capital of Virginia and a port of entry. It is situated on the north bank of the James River, at the head of tide-water, about 150 miles from its mouth. It is 100 miles south of Washington, and picturesquely situated on the Richmond hills on the lower falls of the river. A trip from Washington to Richmond leads through the storied district of Virginia; first along the broad Potomac, crossing numerous tide-water creeks and affording many pleasant outlooks, then to historic Fredericksburg, where the tide of war surged so fiercely, and on through the rolling, well-tilled country, passing frequent villages, at one of which, Milford, a stop is made for meals, and then through Ashland, with its venerable college buildings, beyond which it is a short run to Richmond.

The opportunity to visit and familiarize oneself with the many interesting historic points in the famous capital of the late Confederacy is one which is eagerly seized by nearly all intelligent pleasure travelers going South



STATE CAPITOL.

for the first time, and thus it happens that there is a very general interchange of passengers at this point. One day devoted to the city of Richmond for rest and relaxation will suffice to give an intelligent idea of this centre of the great struggle. A half day of pleasant driving through the broad and shady streets of the city to Hollywood Cemetery, one of the most beautiful places of sepulture in the land, would be a source of much pleasure and entertainment. A monument of great interest is that which marks the grave of President James Monroe. Here also lie the remains of General J. E. B. Stuart, who commanded Lee's cavalry during the civil war; while hundreds of Confederate dead rest within the cemetery. A drive to Libby Prison, and the score of lesser points famous in connection with the war, will prove a pleasant and instructive lesson of travel.

The city is regularly laid out and built, and surrounded with beautiful scenery. The fine Capitol Square, located in the heart of the city, contains 8 acres. Within the bounds are found the prominent and shapely structure of the State House, and the famous Washington Monument, as well as the statue of Stonewall Jackson. Among the manufacturing establishments, which give employment to nearly 6,000 hands, are large iron-works, machine-shops, foundries, sugar refineries, flour-mills, carriage-shops, tanneries, tobacco and cigar factories. The Tredegar iron-works, covering 15 acres, were employed for the manufacture of cannon during the existence of the Confederacy, and are now among the most important iron-works in the country. The flour-mills are among the largest in the world. There are 10 insurance companies, 4 national banks, and 6 state and saving banks. Richmond was founded in 1742, and became the capital of the State in 1779. In 1811 the burning of a theatre destroyed the lives of 70 persons, including the Governor of the State. It was here that the convention to ratify the Federal constitution met in 1788, and it has since been the scene of many great political gatherings. On the 17th of April, 1861, the State of Virginia seceded from the Union, and in July following the Confederate Congress met in Richmond, and made it the capital of the Confederacy. General Joseph E. Johnston at this time had 60,000 Confederates under his command in Virginia, and from this time till the close of the war Richmond continued to be one of the principal points of attack by the Federal army under Generals McDowell, McClellan, Burnside, Hooker, Meade, and Grant. It was defended by General Lee with a large army and formidable lines of fortifications, till the seizure of the lines of supply by Generals Grant and Sheridan compelled its evacuation after a series of sanguinary battles, April 3, 1865. During the evacuation of April 3, 1865, over 1,000 houses in the business portion of the city were destroyed; the loss of this and other property destroyed amounted to over \$8,000,000. Immediately after the close of the war rebuilding was begun, and proceeded rapidly. The celebrated military prisons known as Castle Thunder and Libby Prison were long used as tobacco warehouses. The former was burned several years ago, and in 1889 the latter was removed to Chicago, where it was re-erected on Wabash Avenue precisely as it appeared in its original location. It is now used as a great museum in which thousands of relics of the civil war are exhibited. In St. John's Episcopal Church the Virginia Convention which decided the attitude of the Colony in 1775 was held. Here Patrick Henry made his celebrated speech ending—"I know not what course others may

take; but as for me, give me liberty or give me death!" The convention which ratified the Federal Constitution was also held in this church in 1788.

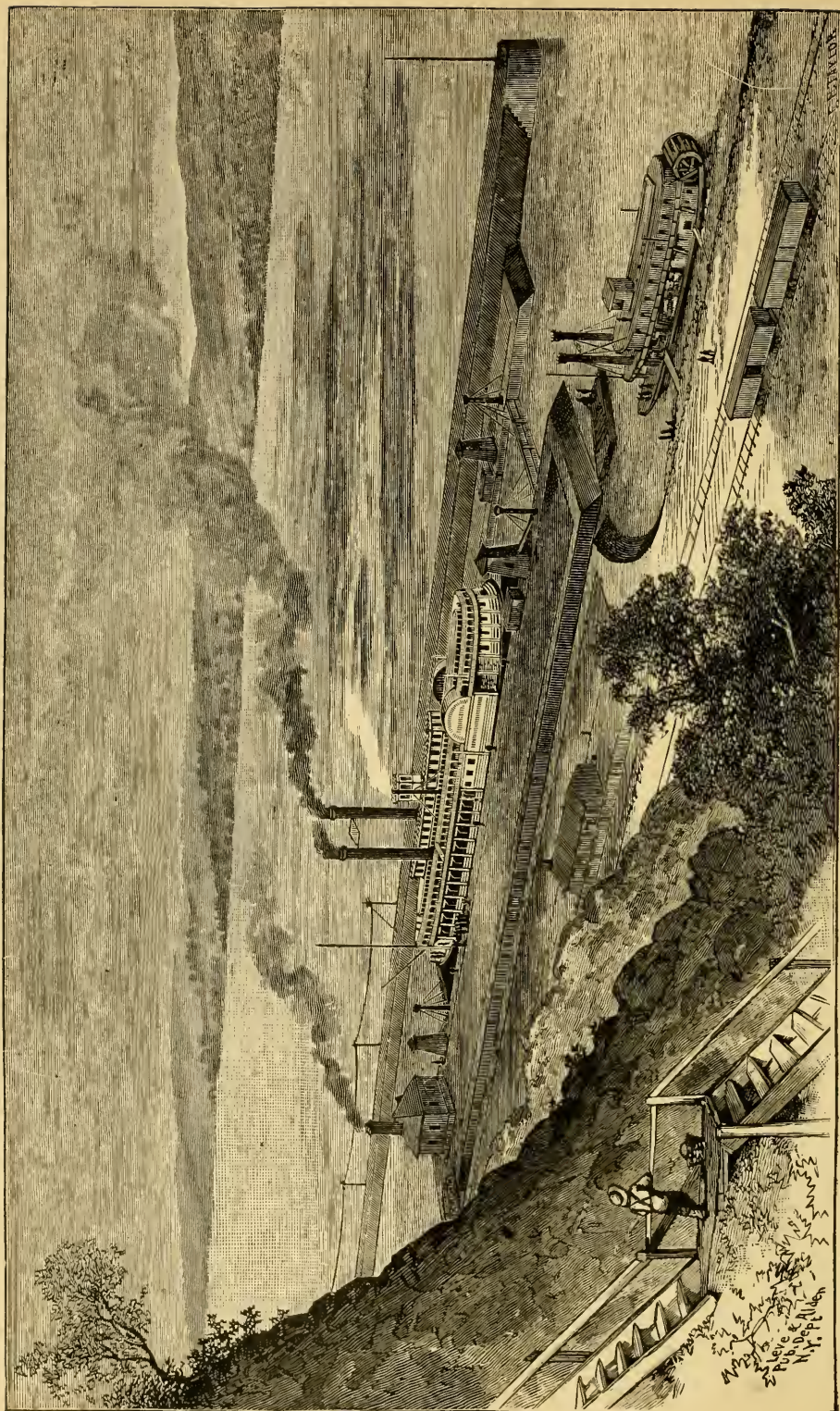
The business section has solid and handsome structures. The private residences are mostly surrounded by fine lawns and gardens. The river has much picturesque scenery. The State Library contains about 50,000 volumes and many fine historical portraits. The Custom-house and Post-office occupy a fine granite structure. Near the Medical College can be seen the Brokenbrough House, which was occupied during the war by Jefferson Davis as his official headquarters.

Numerous lines of railroad intersect at Richmond. Regular lines of steamers connect the city with Norfolk, Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York. Since the recent improvements in the river, vessels drawing 19 feet of water can load and unload at the docks. A canal round the falls gives a river navigable 200 miles, and a canal and several railways enhance its commercial importance. Population in 1889, 85,000.

CITY OF KEOKUK.



KEOKUK is situated in Lee County, Iowa, on the west bank of the Mississippi River near the mouth of the Des Moines River, and at the foot of the lower rapids. From its advantageous position as a port of delivery it has received the name of the "The Gate City." It is built on a bluff of limestone that rises to a height of 150 feet; the buildings are chiefly of brick, and those of a public character embrace a medical college, law school, six large public school houses, built of brick at a cost of \$125,000, a United States court, a public library, gas works, and extensive water works. For a city of its age and population it made a remarkable showing in the last census year (1880). Its freight and passenger traffic was handled by seven lines of railroad; its banking business showed a large increase over that of the preceding year; its jobbing business approximated \$20,000,000 in extent; its retail trade gained from forty to fifty per cent. in a year; and its manufacturing interests received a decided boom. Among the latter it counted 3 pork-packing establishments, 2 railroad machine shops, 1 railroad car shop, 4 wagon factories, 3 foundries, 2 stone quarries, 3 breweries, 13 cigar factories, 3 marble works, 2 lime kilns, 3 brick yards, 2 planing-mills, and a saw-mill, fruit-canning establishment, woolen hose, chain pump, furniture,



THE UNITED STATES LOCK AND CANAL AT KEOKUK, IOWA.

soap, flour-sack, shirt, and broom factories, and the usual variety of manufacturing articles required for domestic use. Fifty-three business houses and residences were erected at a cost of over \$300,000, besides an opera house that cost \$45,000 and a public library that cost \$20,000; and various public improvements were made that represented an additional outlay of \$38,000. In the same year 852 conveyances of real estate were made, the aggregate consideration for which was \$492,881.

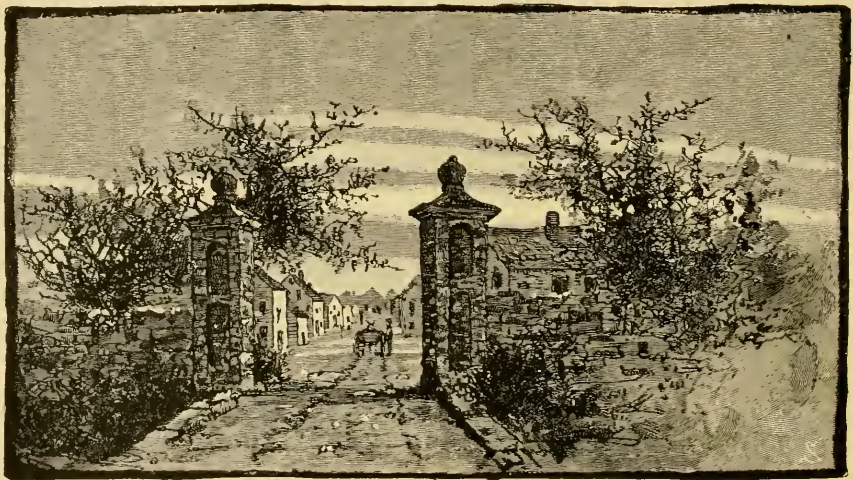
The city is best known in commercial circles, not only in the West but along all the great arteries of trade and transportation of the country, as a port of delivery and transshipment. A brief study on the map of its location and railroad and water connections will at once establish its importance. For many years the great obstruction to freight traffic which the lower rapids caused, was recognized as a matter of general importance. Not only the growth of the city, but the business necessities of a vast section of territory were held in check thereby. Great as was the desirability of overcoming this obstacle, the cost of any permanent improvement of this part of the river was estimated at a figure far beyond the ability of the city or State or both combined to pay. The demands of commerce, however, were loud, continuous, and imperative, and as the improvement was destined to yield much more than a local benefit, the general government very wisely took the matter in hand, and constructed a canal around the rapids, deep enough to accommodate steamboats, 9 miles in length, and with an average of 300 feet in width, and provided it with the necessary locks and basins. This improvement, carried out under the direction of the United States engineer corps, cost the government \$8,000,000, and beside yielding an incalculable benefit to the whole commercial interests of the West, gave Keokuk an admirable water-power for manufacturing purposes. The population of the city has grown as follows: 1850, 2,478; 1860, 8,136; 1870, 12,766; 1880, 12,117; 1885, 13,151; 1889, 15,000.

CITY OF ST. AUGUSTINE.



ST. AUGUSTINE the first place within the limits of the United States settled by white men, is a city, seaport, and capital of St. John's County, Florida. It is situated on a bay of the Atlantic two miles from the ocean, is 30 miles south of the mouth of St. John's River, 80 miles south of St. Mary's, 170 miles east by south of Tallahassee, 310 miles

south of Charleston, and in latitude $29^{\circ} 45'$ north and longitude $81^{\circ} 40'$ west. It has an attractive and spacious harbor, and ample railroad, steamboat, and steamship connections with northern and local points of importance. The situation is pleasant, and has the advantages of refreshing breezes and the delicious fragrance of orange groves. The city was built on a peninsula and in oblong form, with four principal and narrow streets. The houses as a rule were two stories in height, the first story being constructed of a conglomerate of fine shells and sand called *coquina*, and abounding in large quantities on Anastasia Island at the entrance of the harbor. This material is easily quarried and manipulated, and possesses the property of hardening on exposure



THE OLD GATE, ST. AUGUSTINE, FLORIDA.

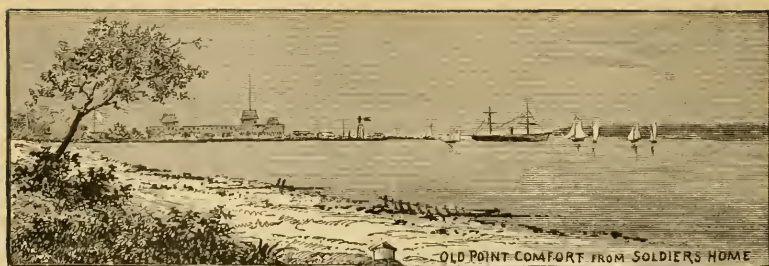
to the air. The second stories were of wood and projected over the first in a strikingly quaint fashion. The chief feature of the town till within a few years was a large public square which fronted the harbor, and was surrounded in true Spanish style by the various public buildings and the venerable Roman Catholic cathedral.

Since the close of the civil war it has become a very popular winter resort and stopping-place for northern people owning orange groves in Florida; and the knowledge of its extreme age, the tenacity of its permanent residents for everything ancient, and its remains of early Spanish works of defense, have made it exceedingly attractive to experienced tourists. The United State government has built a substantial sea-wall along its harbor side, which forms one of the most delightful promenades to be found anywhere. Modern

domiciles have sprung up here and there, and there have been a few attempts to provide it with some of the improvements and accommodations of the day; but in all essentials it is still only the oldest remains of the Spanish power in America, and such its citizens are content to have it known and continue. Its permanent population was less in 1880 than it was in 1821, even with the addition of the Indian prisoners removed to the old fort from Fort Sill and the Cheyenne agency in Indian Territory.

While in the possession of the Spaniards, St. Augustine was considered a place of much strategic importance, and as it had St. Sebastian River on one side and St. Augustine Bay on another, they built a stone wall across its northern end and regarded that as a sufficient protection. Later on, however, a fort was built with walls 20 feet high and 12 thick, in which 36 guns were mounted. The old wall had quite an ornamental gateway with towers and curious loop-holed sentry boxes. This wall has now totally disappeared, but the gateway has been preserved, and even the contour of the original external ditch, which was broad and deep and extended from water to water. The gateway, the cathedral, and ruins of many of the early *coquina* houses now constitute the real curiosities of the place, though the old fort, at once an Indian prison and school-house, receives a fair share of admiration.

Concerning its antiquity as a settlement, it may be briefly narrated that the famous Ponce de Leon, he who searched the world in vain for the fountain possessing the power of restoring youth, landed there on Palm Sunday, March 27, 1512, and, as the ground was covered with flowers, called it "Pascua Florida." He took possession of the country in the name of Ferdinand and Isabella, and then set sail for the mysterious island, Bimini, and its magic fountain. No permanent settlement was made there till 1565, when Don Pedro Menendez founded a town and called it St. Augustine. His early administration was historically marked by the massacre of several hundred Frenchmen who had surrendered themselves prisoners of war. In 1567 the town was captured and destroyed by the adventurous Huguenot, Dominique de Gourgues, as a retribution for the treachery shown his countrymen; but Menendez immediately rebuilt it and ruled there till 1577. Sir Francis Drake sacked and burned it in 1586, when it had attained considerable size and population—probably more than it has since had. It was again rebuilt, and again burned in 1665, this time by Captain Davis, an Englishman. There is a tradition that between these dates it was also destroyed by Indians, but proof on this point is not conclusive. After Captain Davis's raid it must



HAMPTON, VA., WITH OLD POINT COMFORT, THE NATIONAL SOLDIERS' HOME, AND THE NORMAL AND AGRICULTURAL INSTITUTE.

have been rebuilt more substantially than before, for in 1702 an English expedition against it, led by Governor Morris, of South Carolina, was successfully repulsed. Governor Oglethorpe, of Georgia, also proceeded against it in 1740, and though he besieged it a long time failed to occupy it. A second expedition, which he led in 1743, provided with the best means of attack then known and composed of men of picked determination, was likewise repulsed. It thus remained in the possession of Spain till the cession of the territory of Florida to the United States in 1821. During the civil war it was seized and occupied a short time by a Confederate force, being regained by the Union troops. In 1875, at the suggestion of General Sherman, a body of refractory Indians was separated from their comrades on the plain and sent as prisoners to the old fort, renamed Fort Marion, for exemplary punishment. They still remain there, and under the direction of the Federal government are being educated and taught the manners and employments of peaceful life.

In 1821 the population of the city was 2,500; in 1870, it had fallen to 1,717; and in 1889 it was 5,000.

CITY OF HAMPTON.



AMPTON, though small in area and population, is large in the amount of its social and historical interest. It is the capital of Elizabeth County, Va., and is situated on the north side of Hampton Roads, at the mouth of James River. It is three miles west of the famous Fortress Monroe, and eighteen miles north northwest of the city of Norfolk. The very mention of its location arouses vivid reminiscences of many stirring events in the civil war. Several naval expeditions were fitted out by the Federal authorities at Fortress Monroe; but the chief event was the destruction of the United States war vessels *Cumberland* and *Congress* by the Confederate iron-clad steam ram *Merrimack*, assisted by the steamers *Jamestown* and *Yorktown*, in Hampton Roads, where a large Union fleet was at anchor, on March 8, 1862, and the novel and unexpected engagement between the *Merrimack* and the first Union iron-clad, the *Monitor*, on the following day. The results of this first battle between iron-clad vessels led the Union and Confederate authorities to construct others on the same general plan, and set all European naval powers to work overhauling their costly wooden frigates and building new ships on the American plan.

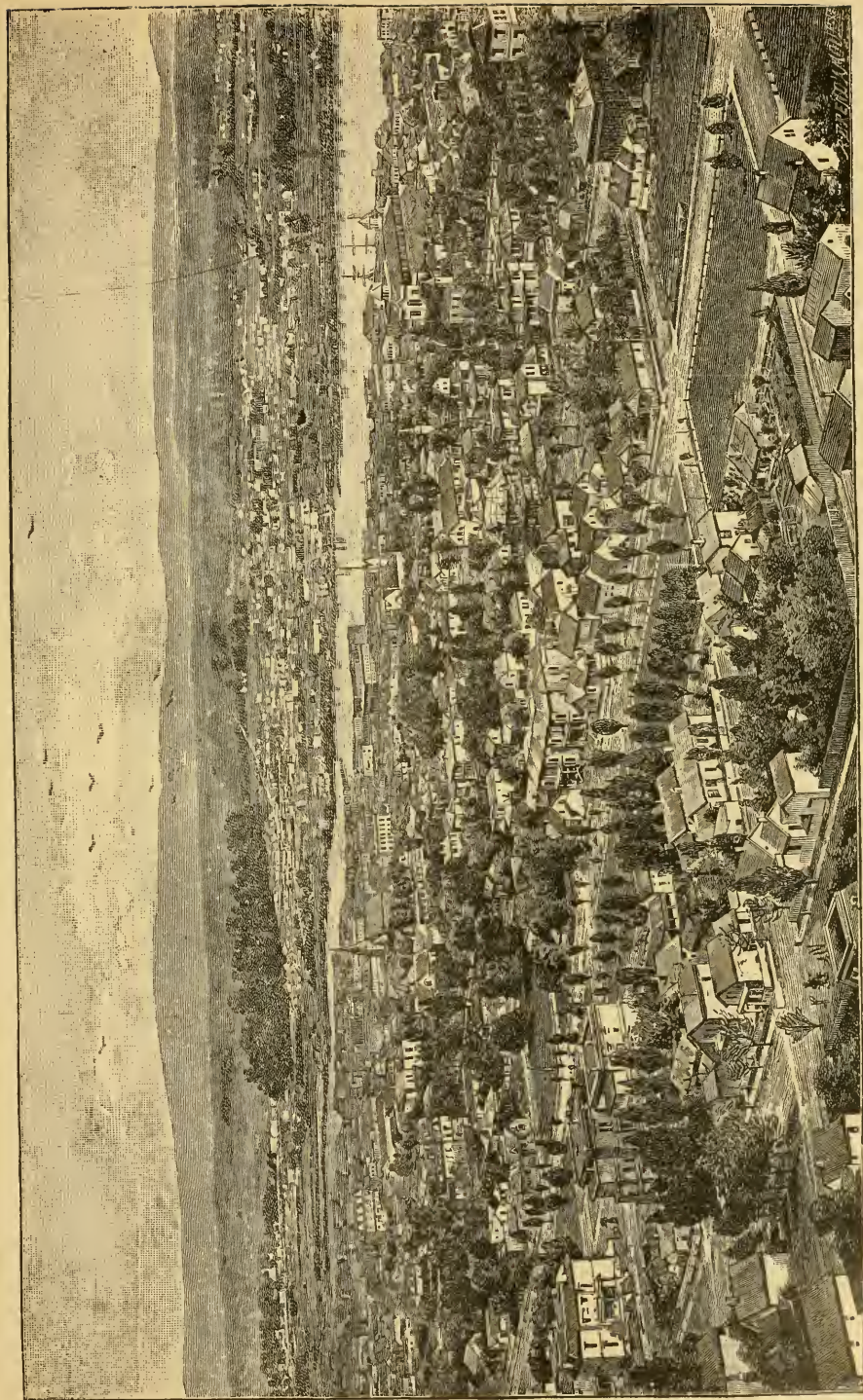
Hampton has a good harbor for vessels of light draft, opening into the Roads. Its chief attractions, all out-growths of the civil war, are the national cemetery, the National Home for Disabled Soldiers, shown in the centre of the illustration, and the normal and agricultural institute, founded originally for the education of freedmen's children and subsequently utilized by the Federal government for the education of a number of its young Indian wards. The buildings and farm are shown at the bottom of the illustration. The city contains 5 churches, has manufactories of bricks, fish-oil, and other articles, enjoys a considerable trade in fish, oysters, and garden products, and is visited annually by a large number of tourists, beside the hosts that pass the season of fashionable recreation at Old Point Comfort, shown at top of illustration, which has become a very popular resort, and possess an unrivalled bathing ground along its beach. The permanent population was estimated in 1870 at 2,300; 1889 at 2,800.

CITY OF PORTLAND, OREGON.



PORTLAND, the metropolis of Oregon and of the Pacific northwest as well, is situated on the Willamette River twelve miles above its junction with the Columbia, fifty miles north of Salem, the capital of the State, 122 miles by river from the Pacific ocean, and 530 miles north of San Francisco, and in latitude $45^{\circ} 30'$ north and longitude $122^{\circ} 27'$ west. It was originally staked out by two men, Messrs. Lovejoy and Overton, in 1843, practically settled in 1845, and incorporated as a city in 1851. With the exception of the great fire of August 2, 1873, when over \$1,000,000 worth of property in its heart was destroyed, it has met with uninterrupted and substantial prosperity. The city extends from the river back to a range of abrupt hills, a distance of one mile, and along the river, which is bordered with spacious wharves, warehouses, and mills, nearly three miles. It is the first city in point of wealth, proportionally to size, in the United States; is the seat of an extensive and rapidly increasing wholesale trade and the supply point of the great Columbian region; and has a direct commerce with the leading Asiatic ports and the Pacific islands.

The city is regularly and beautifully laid out; the number of palatial residences, encircled by richly ornamented grounds, strike the visiting stranger with astonishment; and the great solid and handsome business blocks of



THE CITY OF PORTLAND, OREGON.

brick and iron give an idea of wealth and commercial activity rarely met in so young a place. Many of its business blocks would adorn the busiest thoroughfares of any thrifty city. Its churches bespeak a toleration of religious opinions and a worthy denominational zeal, and its educational and charitable institutions testify to a quickened intelligence, refinement, and beneficence. To the tourist it has two permanent charms, the view of the eternal snows on Mounts Hood and St. Helen and on the farther peaks of Rainier and Adams, and the pleasant steamboat sails down the Willamette and up the broad Columbia to the Cascades and the Dalles, or down to Astoria, resting on piles by the water side, like a picturesque lacustrine village of Switzerland. The city has many miles of costly streets and avenues, large gas and water works, and ample street railroad service, and is lighted by gas and electricity.

Portland is a city of churches and schools. It had 26 churches of different denominations in 1889, and its public and other schools were attended by 9,000 pupils. The public schools are organized on the graded system, and sustained with great liberality by a public tax voted by citizens in annual school meetings, beside the quota derived from the public school fund of the State. The Protestant Episcopal Church has a number of private schools of a higher order for young ladies and gentlemen, and the Roman Catholic Church maintains a boarding-school, an academy, and a college, beside a number of parochial schools and other educational institutions. There are also numerous private schools of an exceptionably high standard. In the line of denominational charity, the Protestant Episcopal Church supports the Hospital and Orphanage of the Good Samaritan, and the Roman Catholic the Hospital of St. Vincent. With the educational interests of the city should be included the Portland Library, an incorporated and flourishing institution, possessing over 15,000 volumes of standard works, and advantages that meet with general appreciation.

During 1887 the value of the various products of Oregon and Washington Territory that passed through Portland for direct export to foreign countries amounted to nearly \$20,000,000, and during the same period the city did a wholesale and retail trade of over \$45,000,000. It had six banking institutions with an aggregate capital of \$3,000,000; three lumber and numerous planing mills; 5 iron foundries, turning out the heaviest kind of work; several carriage, furniture, boot and shoe, and harness factories; world-renowned salmon fisheries and canning establishments; and large interests in wool and cattle raising. Nearly all the commerce of the Columbia River region is trans-

acted at Portland, and includes on an average 8,000,000 pounds of wool per annum, valued at \$2,000,000, and 10,000,000 bushels of wheat worth as many dollars, beside shipments of hops, vegetables, fruit, oats, lumber, and many other articles that must aggregate nearly or quite \$25,000,000 more; and this trade increases at a ratio that is governed by the progress and development of the whole region north of California and west of the Rocky Mountains.

Portland owes its wonderful prosperity, first, to its location on the river at a point accessible by ocean steamships, thus giving it all the material advantages of a seaport while over 100 miles inland; second, to the fact that it is the natural depot for the shipment of the various products of the fertile Willamette and Umpqua valleys and the vast salmon product of the Columbia River; and third, to the remarkable development of the northwestern railroad system. Its population in 1861 amounted to 2,917; the census of 1880 gave it 17,500; a local census in 1882 enumerated 20,000 whites and 5,000 Chinese; and a careful estimate in 1887, which included East Portland, on the opposite side of the river, destined to become incorporated with it shortly, showed a total of 45,000.

CITY OF DES MOINES.



ES MOINES, the capital city of Iowa, is beautifully situated in Polk County near the centre of the State and on both sides the Des Moines River, where it receives the waters of the Raccoon River. Its location gives it a large commercial and manufacturing importance. Each river has a width of about 600 feet within its limits and both unite in an eight-foot fall, which provides an admirable water-power. Beneath and for a considerable distance around the city are coal veins of great richness and extent, giving employment to over 2,000 persons. The surrounding territory, easily accessible by railroad, is a high-grade agricultural region. Fifteen railroads and branches have stations in the city, thus giving it exceptional facilities for shipping its manufacturing, industrial, and agricultural products, and bringing it in close connection with other prominent business sections. It is 88 miles from Fort Dodge, 138 from Omaha, 161 from Keokuk, 174 from Davenport, and 357 from Chicago. The present prosperity of the city is due first to its natural location, and second to its railroad advantages.

In 1880 there were 155 manufacturing establishments within its corpo-

rate limits, conducted on a capital of \$1,463,250, employing 1,378 hands, paying \$667,699 in wages, and yielding products valued at \$4,220,709. The chief industries, as indicated by the value of products were: wholesale and jobbing trade, \$10,700,000; grain and produce, \$2,665,000; pork, \$2,465,000; spirits, \$500,000; tobacco, \$179,500; foundries and machine shops, \$176,000; tin and sheet iron works, \$174,000; and flour-mills, \$156,000. The barbed-wire industry reached a productive value of nearly \$200,000, and the local mines gave an output valued at \$1,055,840. The same year its citizens spent \$1,000,000 in erecting 650 residences, \$340,000 in business structures, and \$405,000 in churches, educational establishments, and municipal buildings.

In 1889 Des Moines contained a United States court house and post-office that cost \$250,000; the State arsenal with its precious treasure of civil war battle-flags; Drake University; Des Moines University; Callaneau College for young ladies; public, district, and high schools; State, public, and city libraries; 3 opera houses; 5 national banks with an aggregate capital of \$850,000, 5 State banks with a capital of \$400,000, and 4 loan and trust companies with a capital of \$753,000; and 51 churches divided among the leading denominations. The chief glory of the city was the new State Capitol, the building that towers in the back-ground of the illustration. This grand monument to architectural skill stands on an elevation of 120 feet above the Des Moines River, covers an area of 58,850 feet of ground, and cost with its furniture \$3,500,000. It has a dome at each of its four corners, and a central one that rises to a height of 275 feet above the ground. The stone work of the building is chiefly granite and marble, and twenty-nine varieties of the latter were used in its construction and ornamentation. The building is one of the most substantial and imposing in the country.

The city is well drained, provided with water by the Holly system, is lighted with gas and electricity, has four lines of horse cars connecting its business centre with the suburbs, and is supplied with a steam fire department.

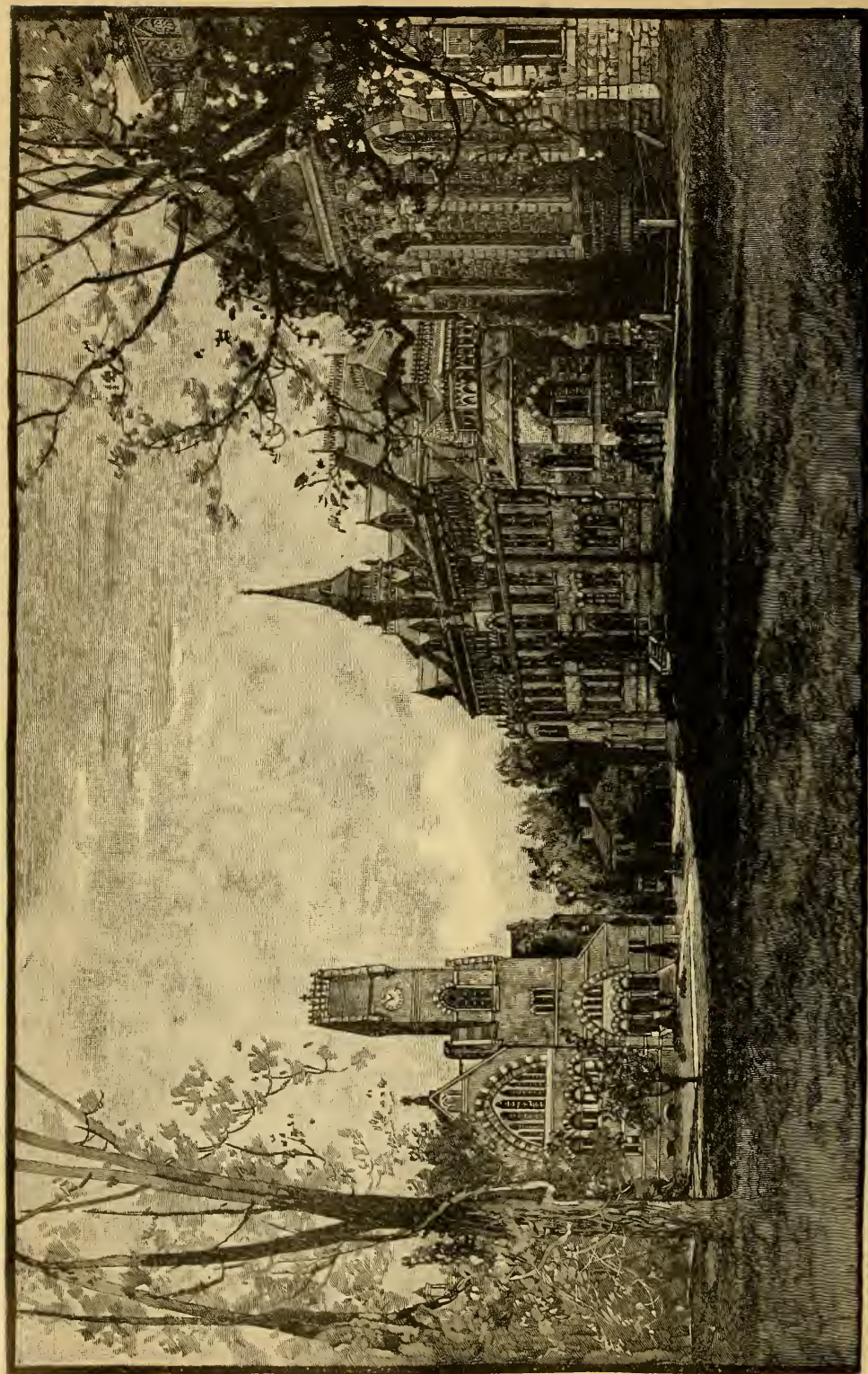
The site of Des Moines was a part of the reservation of the Sac and Fox Indians, which the Federal government acquired by treaty in 1842. A tract of 160 acres having been ceded to the State in 1846, the legislature organized Polk County, and after much contention Fort Des Moines, as the settlement was then called, from the name of the United States military post, was chosen the county seat. The first survey was made in July, 1846, the town was incorporated in 1853, was selected by the legislature as the capital of the

State instead of Iowa City, the first capital, in 1854, and was chartered as a city with the word Fort expunged in 1857. It was not till August, 1866, that railroad connection with the outer world was established. The construction through it of the Chicago, Rock Island & Pacific railroad gave it its first great boom, and its citizens have since been alert in utilizing every means that could conduce to its advancement. Population, 1870, 12,035; 1880, 22,408; 1889, 38,000.

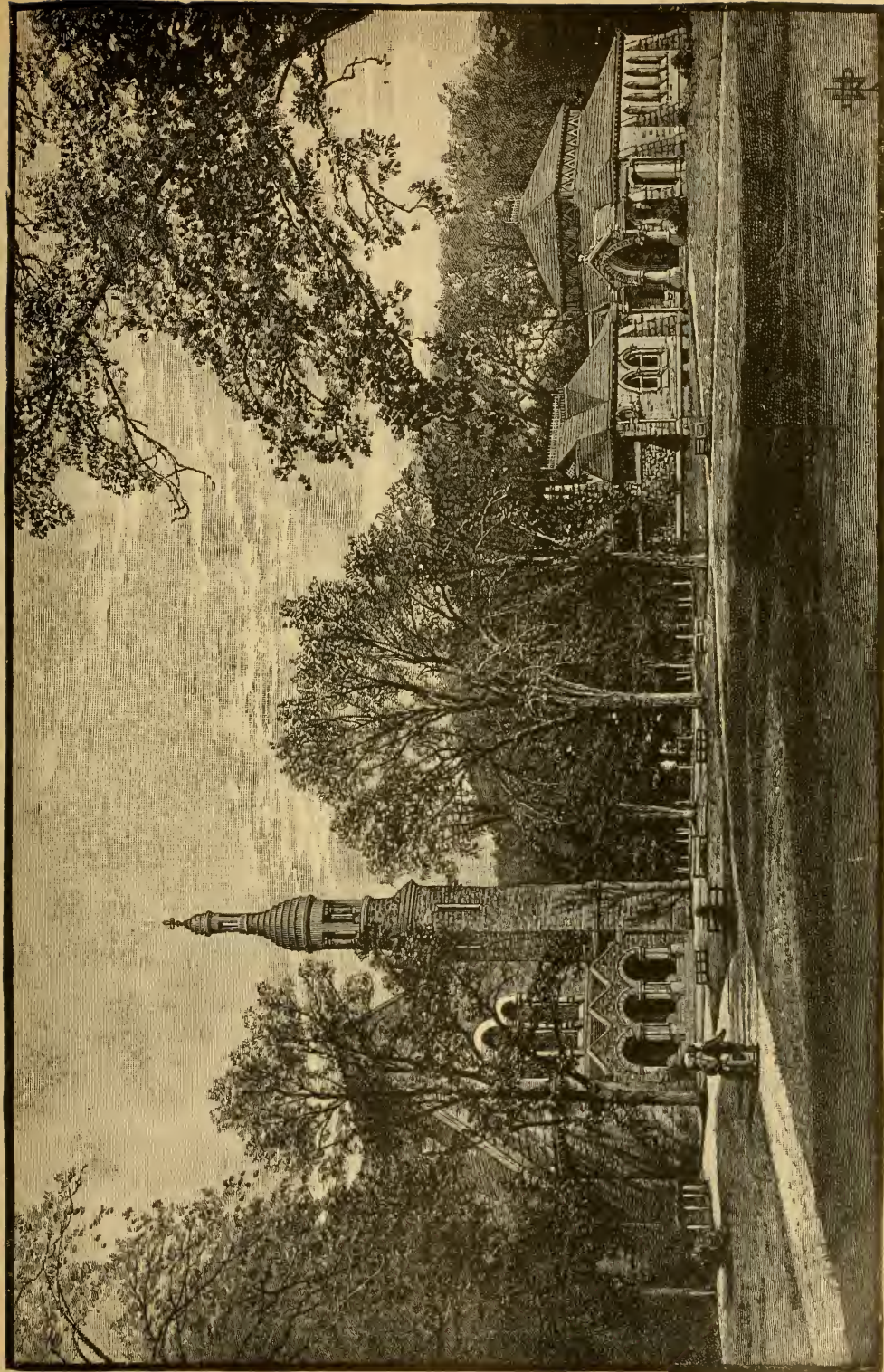
CITY OF PRINCETON.



PRINCETON, famous the world over for its institutions of learning, is in Mercer County, N. J., about midway between New York and Philadelphia, and three miles from the main line of the Pennsylvania Railroad. It is an ancient city, its settlement dating back to about 1700, and possesses a great wealth of historical associations. The streets are broad, with a beautiful expanse of charming lawns and spreading trees, and disclose many magnificent residences. In 1746 the College of New Jersey was founded at Elizabeth, N. J., by royal charter, and remained there till 1757, when from a variety of causes it was removed to Princeton, where it has since been maintained. In point of age it is thus the third college in the United States. The grounds now cover nearly 70 acres, and the principal buildings, erected on the crest of a steep hill, command superb views of a natural panorama. Nearly all the buildings, of which there were twenty-six in 1889, are built of stone, and many of them display great architectural beauty, with their environments of unsurpassed lawns. Nassau Hall, the oldest in the cluster, was dedicated by Governor Belcher to the memory of King William III., who belonged to the royal house of Nassau. When completed it was the largest building in the colonies. It long sufficed for all college purposes, was used as barrack and hospital by both the British and the American forces in the Revolutionary war and was frequently a target for cannon balls, and is now devoted to the celebrated museum of paleontology with its work-rooms and laboratories. The other buildings of note are the Chancellor Green Library, erected 1872 at a cost of \$125,000, and containing over 70,000 volumes; Dickinson Hall; the Halstead Observatory; Murray Hall; Marquand Chapel; the Art Museum, containing the almost priceless collection of ceramics presented by William C. Prime; and the Bio-



THE COLLEGE OF NEW JERSEY, AT PRINCETON.



THE CHAPEL AND MURRAY HALL, COLLEGE OF NEW JERSEY, AT PRINCETON.

logical Laboratory. During the presidency of the Rev. James McCosh, D.D., LL.D., Litt.D., 1868 to 1888, twelve new buildings were erected and \$3,000,000 were contributed to the college. This patriarch of learning, on resigning from age, was succeeded by the Rev. Francis Landey Patton, D.D., LL.D., philosopher, professor, theologian, and native of Warwick, Bermuda.

Next to the College of New Jersey, Princeton takes justifiable pride in its Theological Seminary, founded in 1810, the largest and oldest Presbyterian divinity school in the United States. Besides these institutions there are three classical schools and two very popular schools for the exclusive instruction of young women. With the venerable Nassau Hall, the various modern college and seminary buildings, the ornate residences, the quaint old colonial houses, the wide shaded streets, superb lawns, and magnificent trees, Princeton presents a very unique appearance, a tasteful commingling of the very old and the very new. It is a quiet place, as befits its seeming mission, a centre of intellectual pursuits and reflection, a university town in all but name. Princeton is equally interesting for the scenes of national progress enacted there. It was occupied by both contesting forces at times during the Revolutionary war. In 1783, when the exigencies of military movements necessitated the flight of the Continental Congress from Philadelphia, it adjourned to Princeton and resumed its sessions in the library room on the second floor of Nassau Hall. But before this the soil of Princeton was torn and reddened in the conflict of arms. Washington's success at Trenton on December 26, 1776, recalled Lord Cornwallis to New Jersey from his projected departure for England. Washington moved stealthily from the Assanpink at Trenton on the night of January 2, 1777, and directed his main army toward Princeton, with the intention of giving battle to the British troops remaining there, and of seizing their supplies at New Brunswick. On the 3d Washington struck the rear of Cornwallis's army near Stony Brook. Both armies manœuvred to gain a rising ground in the vicinity. The Americans succeeded, but were driven away by the bayonet. Washington rallied his troops, opened artillery fire, drove the British in retreat toward Trenton, pushed into Princeton, where he defeated a British regiment, compelled the surrender of another regiment that had sought safety in Nassau Hall, burned bridges to prevent the approach of Cornwallis's main army, and pursued the retreat of the rest to New Brunswick. Population: 1870, 2,798; 1880, 3,209; 1889, 3,940.

THE
GREAT REPUBLIC
OF
THE WEST:
ITS STATES AND TERRITORIES.

INTRODUCTION.

The Great Republic of the West.

BY BENSON J. LOSSING, LL.D.

EXTENDING in a broad, irregular belt across the continent of North America between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, is a Republic composed of a group of Forty-Two independent but never sovereign States: Six organized Territories: a District which is the Seat of the National Government, and an Indian Territory. In the far northwestern part of the Continent, and separated from these States and Territories by British possessions, is Alaska, a vast region, which also forms a part of the Great Republic of the United States of America.

This Republic lies between latitude $24^{\circ} 20'$ and 49° north, and longitude $10^{\circ} 14'$ east and $47^{\circ} 30'$ west of the meridian of Washington, the political capital of the Nation. It is between longitude $66^{\circ} 48''$ and $124^{\circ} 32'$ west from Greenwich, England. It comprehends an area, including Alaska (577,390 square miles), of three million, six hundred and ninety square miles, and had, in 1888, a population of fully 66,000-000 human beings. It is favored by almost every variety of climate, soil, and productions, and is charmingly diversified by immense and beautiful lakes, rivers, mountains, and plains.

The Government of the United States is Republican, and embraces three great branches, namely: the Legislative, the Judicial and

the Executive. The first makes the laws, the second construes them, and the third enforces them.

The National Government is alone sovereign. All the States are subject to it, through the operation of the National Constitution, which is the fundamental law of the Republic. It alone has the power to coin money; create and control an army and navy; declare war and conclude peace; negotiate, conclude, and enforce treaties, and perform all other functions of absolute sovereignty. To it the several States owe perpetual allegiance.

I present, in "The Great Republic of the West" a compendious and separate history of the several States and Territories of this Republic, as concisely as lucidity will allow, arranged in the chronological order in which they were first permanently settled and organized into provinces, territories, and states. In this order the commonwealth of Virginia leads the grand procession.

By a careful perusal of these Sketches the reader may acquire a clear conception of the character, variety, and combined strength of the materials used in the building of our Great Republic.

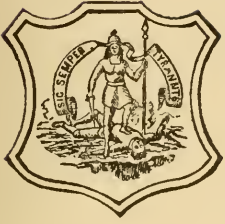
The publishers intended to insert in the foregoing narrative the portrait of the *first governor* of each State and Territory. They have succeeded in obtaining the likenesses of nearly all of them. When, after diligent and persistent efforts they failed to obtain them, the portrait of some person distinguished in the history of the State or Territory which suffers such omission, has been inserted. If hereafter such portraits shall be obtained, they will be inserted in their proper places.

"THE RIDGE,"

Dover Plains, N. Y., Oct. 1st, 1889.

VIRGINIA.

(1607.)



THIS, the oldest of the commonwealths that formed the original thirteen States of our Republic, is one of the Middle Atlantic States. It lies between latitude $36^{\circ} 31'$ and $39^{\circ} 27'$ north, and longitude $75^{\circ} 13'$ and $83^{\circ} 37'$ west, from Greenwich. On its borders are Maryland, West Virginia, Kentucky, North Carolina, Tennessee, and the Atlantic Ocean. The area of the State is 42,450 square miles. In population, according to the census of 1880, Virginia ranks fourteen among the States and twenty in the value of both agricultural products and its manufactures. The population was then 1,512,565, of whom 631,707 were colored.

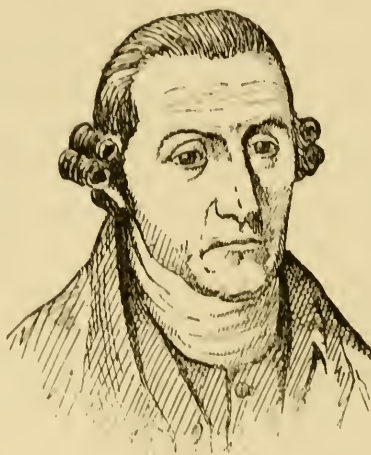
No State in the Union presents a greater variety of surface and climate than Virginia. Its mountain regions are exceedingly picturesque, and its soil in its valleys, and in its plains near the sea, is very fertile; while its mineral treasures of various kinds are abundant. The State is topographically divided into five regions, namely: the Lower or Tide-water, the Piedmont, the Valley, the Alleghanies and Trans-Alleghanies.

The Tide-water District comprises about thirty-seven counties bordering on the Atlantic Ocean and Chesapeake Bay.

The Piedmont region is at the foot of the mountains, and embraces about thirty-two counties. It is more elevated than the Lowland district, with a diversified surface and genial, healthful climate; and is one of the most attractive regions in the Union.

The Valley District lies between the Blue Ridge on the East and the Alleghany Mountains on the West, and traverses the entire length of Virginia for about three hundred miles. It comprises the Shenandoah Valley and South Branch, made famous by stirring events during the late Civil War. This Valley region is renowned for its fertility. It was originally settled by English, German, Scotch and Irish, who by intermarriage produced a hardy race. The Valley District embraces about eight thousand square miles.

The history of Virginia is exceedingly interesting from the beginning. From some shipwrecked Huguenots making their way from their asylum from persecution, in (present) South Carolina, to their homes in Europe, the British Queen Elizabeth heard of the beautiful land on the Southern coasts of the Atlantic toward the region of Florida, which the Spaniards had discovered; and British navigators and adventurers were stirred with strong desires to visit that region. Among the skillful navigators of England was Sir Humphrey Gilbert, who obtained a patent for establishing a plantation in America. His rich young kinsman, Walter Raleigh, who at seventeen years of age had fought for the Huguenots, in France, and afterwards in the



PATRICK HENRY, FIRST GOVERNOR OF VIRGINIA.

Netherlands, joined him in the enterprise. They sailed for America in 1579, but were turned back by a heavy storm and an encounter with Spanish cruisers.

Raleigh became a gay favorite at the court of Elizabeth, who lavished favors upon him; and he obtained another patent for Gilbert. Raleigh furnished means for fitting out five ships, with which Gilbert sailed, first to Newfoundland and then for the Southern coasts. Off the shores of Maine the little squadron was dispersed and lost in a storm. Gilbert perished and only one vessel returned to tell the dreadful tale.

Raleigh was not disheartened. In 1584, he sent two ships which entered an inlet on the coast of (present) North Carolina. The men explored Pamlico and Albermarle Sounds, discovered Roanoke Island, and took possession of

the whole region in the name of their Virgin Queen. As a memorial of her unmarried state, Raleigh gave the name of Virginia to the region. He attempted to colonize the country, but failed. His money became exhausted, having spent fully \$200,000 in these schemes, and he abandoned the enterprise.

Other English adventurers were stimulated to efforts to plant colonies in the warmer coast-region of North America. Soon after the accession of James I., King of England, war between that country and France ceased, and there were many restless soldiers out of employment. They endangered social order. There was also a class of ruined and desperate spendthrifts ready to do anything to retrieve their fortunes.

Among adventurous men of character in England at that time were Ferdinando Gorges, Bartholomew Gosnold, Chief Justice Popham, Captain John Smith, Richard Hakluyt, and others. Gorges and Gosnold were friends of Raleigh, and all were imbued with his spirit in the cause of American colonization. They were not deterred by his failures.

Richard Hakluyt, a skillful cosmographer whom Raleigh had appointed one of the company of adventurers for colonizing Virginia in 1589, and who had published narratives of voyages in French and English, incited several friends of Raleigh and others to petition King James to grant them a patent for planting colonies in North America. At that time there was not an Englishman to be found in America, and only one permanent settlement north of Mexico, that of St. Augustine, in Florida. The petition was gladly received by the King, and he granted letters patent (April 10, 1606) to Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Somers, Richard Hakluyt, Edward Maria Wingfield and others, of a territory extending from latitude 35° to 45° N., together with all the islands in the ocean within one hundred miles of the coast. The object was declared to be to "make habitations and plantations" and to form colonies by sending English people into that portion of America commonly called Virginia, with a hope of Christianizing and civilizing the pagans there. This was called the *London Company*.

The Territory was divided into North and South Virginia. A similar charter was granted to another company for the purpose of colonizing the northern portion of the Territory. It was called the *Plymouth Company*. In 1602 Bartholomew Gosnold was sent with a few colonists to the coasts of Maine and Massachusetts, but failed to plant a permanent colony. Gosnold soon afterward organized a company for colonizing the Southern district

of Virginia, the boundaries of which were fixed between latitude 34° and 38° north. A charter was granted him and his associates, April 10, 1606, the first under which the English ever settled in America. Gosnold sailed, December 19, 1606, with one hundred and five adventurers, in three small vessels, commanded by Captain Christopher Newport.

Gosnold intended to plant his colony on Roanoke Island, but a tempest drove the little squadron into Chesapeake Bay, where they found good anchorage. The capes at the entrance to the bay Newport named Charles and Henry, in compliment to the sons of James I. The company landed, and rested after their perilous voyage on a point of land at the mouth of (present) York and James rivers, which Newport named Point Comfort. They sailed up the larger stream, called by the natives the "river of Powhatan," named it James River, and landed on its left bank about fifty miles from Point Comfort, and there planted the seed of the colony of Virginia. It was not very productive, for among the adventurers were only twelve laborers, and the remainder were mostly gold seekers.

The most notable man among the adventurers was Captain John Smith, who, by his arrogance, had excited the jealousy and suspicions of his fellow passengers, and, charged with conspiring to usurp the government of the colony and make himself King, was placed in confinement. It was not known who had been appointed rulers of the colony, for the silly monarch had placed the names of the colonial council in a sealed box to be opened on their arrival. It was found that Smith was one of the council, when he was released.

The place where the adventurers landed was a pleasant spot, heavily timbered. It was really an island, for there was an oozy marsh between it and the mainland. They hung an awning made of an old sail between three or four trees, to shelter them from the sun. Under that shelter the Rev. Robert Hunt, the pastor of the colony, preached a sermon and invoked the blessings of God upon the undertaking. Then, in the warm sunshine and among the shadowy woods and delicious odors of wild flowers, the sound of the metal axe was first heard in Virginia. This first Christian Church in the wilds of America was walled by wooden rails; the pulpit was a bar of wood nailed to two neighboring trees, and the seats were unhewed trees.

"This," wrote Captain Smith, "was our church till we built a homely thing, like a barn set upon crotches, covered with rafters, sedge and earth. The best of our houses were of little curiosity, but, for the most part, of far

worse workmanship, that could neither well defend wind or rain. Yet we had daily common prayer, morning and evening, every Sunday two sermons, and every three months communion, until our minister died." They built log-houses; and so was constructed the first capital of the colony of Virginia, which they named Jamestown.

The colonists chose Wingfield president of the council, who proved unfaithful. The King had prepared a code of laws for them, in which kindness to the Indians, regular preaching of the Gospel, and teaching the Christian religion to the pagans were enjoined; also providing for the well-ordering of the community.

The restless Smith, with others, ascended the James River to the Falls, at the site of Richmond, and made the acquaintance of Powhatan, the Emperor of several tribes of Indians. Newport returned to England early in June for supplies and more emigrants. The supplies which they had brought were spoiled by the long voyage, and the barbarians around them appeared hostile. The marshes near them sent up poisonous vapors; and before the end of the summer after their arrival Gosnold and fully one half of the adventurers died of fever and famine.

Wingfield lived on the choicest stores, and was preparing to sail to the West Indies in a pinnace left by Newport, when his treachery was discovered, and Ratcliffe, a man equally unworthy, was put in his place. He, too, was soon dismissed, when Captain Smith, the ablest man among them, was happily chosen president.

Captain Smith began his rule with great energy. He won the respect of the Indians by his prowess and justice, and they brought food to the colony, consisting of maize or Indian corn and wild fowl. He and a few others explored the Chickahominy River, where he was captured by the barbarians and narrowly escaped with his life. When Smith returned all was confusion at Jamestown; only forty men of the colony were living. These were about to sail for the West Indies, when Newport returned (1608) with supplies and one hundred and twenty emigrants. They were merely adventurers—gold seekers. Smith implored them to cultivate the soil, but in vain. They were idle and dissolute. Smith left the colony in disgust, and in the course of three months he explored Chesapeake Bay, and its tributary streams in an open boat, travelling a thousand miles.

Soon after Smith's return to Jamestown, Newport again arrived with seventy more undesirable emigrants, among them two women, the first

Europeans of their sex who had appeared on the soil of Virginia proper (see *North Carolina*). Smith entreated the company to send over farmers and mechanics. He was little heeded. At the end of two years, when the settlement numbered two hundred strong men, only forty acres of land were under cultivation.

The Company obtained a new charter in 1609. Lord De la Warr (Delaware) was appointed Governor; Sir Thomas Gates, lieutenant-governor; Sir George Somers, admiral; Christopher Newport, vice-admiral, and Sir Thomas Dale, high marshal. In June, 1609, nine vessels, with five hundred emigrants, among them twenty women and children, sailed for Virginia. Gates and Somers embarked with Newport, and the three were to govern the colony until the arrival of Lord De la Warr. The fleet was dispersed by a hurricane, and Newport's ship was wrecked on one of the Bermuda islands. Several of the vessels reached Jamestown, and added to the colony persons more profligate than the first—dissolute scions of wealthy families. Virginia seemed a paradise for libertines.

In the absence of the appointed rulers Smith continued to administer government until the autumn, when an accident compelled him to go to England for surgical treatment. Then the colonists gave themselves up to every irregularity. The Indians withheld supplies, and the winter and spring of 1610 was long remembered as the "starving time." The barbarians resolved to exterminate the pale-faces, but they were spared by a timely warning given them by Pocahontas, a young daughter of the Emperor Powhatan, who had saved the life of Captain Smith. Within six months after Captain Smith left, the nearly four hundred colonists were reduced to sixty.

Gates arrived at Jamestown in June, 1610, when he resolved to abandon the wretched settlement, and go to Newfoundland with the famished survivors. They embarked in four pinnaces. They were met at Point Comfort by Lord De la Warr with supplies and emigrants, and all returned to the deserted village, and there, in the twilight, sang hymns of thanksgiving. In the course of two or three years, a much better class of emigrants arrived and general prosperity and hopefulness prevailed.

In 1617 George Yeardly was appointed Governor. At that time seven separate boroughs had been formed in the colony. From each of these Yeardly summoned two representatives to assemble at Jamestown, on July 30. These delegates formed a Representative Assembly, the first ever held by Europeans within the bounds of our Republic. Then a seal for the colony was

adopted. The same year twelve hundred colonists arrived in Virginia, among whom were ninety "respectable young women" sent over to become wives for the planters. Within two years one hundred and fifty young women were sent to Virginia for the same purpose. Thus *homes* were established, the sure foundations of a prosperous State.

The barbarians had already been made friendly by the marriage of Pocahontas to a young Englishman of good family; but the King injured the colony by sending felons from English prisons to become servants to the planters. This policy was pursued for fully one hundred years in defiance of the protests of settlers.

In 1619, a Dutch vessel took twenty Africans to Jamestown, sold them as slaves, and so the institution of negro slavery was introduced into the Republic.

In 1621, the London Company gave to the colonists a written constitution of government. It provided for the appointment of a Governor and Council by the Company, and a Representative Assembly, to consist of two burgesses or representatives from each borough, to be chosen by the people and clothed with full legislative power in connection with the Council. This body formed the General Assembly; and this was the general form of government in Virginia until it became an independent commonwealth in 1776.

New settlements were now made on the James, York, and Potomac rivers, and on the shores of Chesapeake Bay. Powhatan, the fast friend of the English, was now dead, and his brother and successor was hostile to them. Massacres by the barbarians ensued. The remote plantations were desolated, and the terrified survivors fled to Jamestown for protection. The number of eighty plantations was reduced to eight. A furious war of retaliation ensued and the Indians were beaten back into the wilderness. (Similar troubles were experienced ten years later). Sickness and famine ravaged the land; many families left Virginia, and in 1624, of the nine thousand persons who had been sent to Virginia, only about two thousand remained. The same year Virginia became a royal province.

Charles I. appointed Sir William Berkeley Governor of Virginia in 1641, at the beginning of the Civil War in England. Berkeley was a bigoted royalist, and the colonists remained loyal. Cromwell deposed Berkeley and put another in his place; but when monarchy was restored in England, Charles II. reinstated Berkeley, who played the tyrant so effectually that the suffering people rose in rebellion under the lead of Nathaniel Bacon, a wealthy and

enterprising young lawyer, bold in spirit, and eloquent in speech. Republicanism took possession of the public mind. Bacon and his followers marched on Jamestown from Williamsburg, when the frightened Governor complied with the popular leader's demand for a commission as general of one thousand men to defend the colony against the Indians who threatened it with destruction. When Bacon had marched against the barbarians gathering in the North, the faithless Governor crossed the York River, summoned a convention of Loyalists, and proclaimed the leader of the people a traitor. The indignant Bacon returned, and a fierce Civil War was kindled. Loyalists suffered in persons and estates. The Governor fled in alarm to the Eastern shore of Chesapeake Bay. Bacon proclaimed his abdication. Joined by some imperial troops and sailors, Berkeley returned to Jamestown. Bacon laid the village in ashes, and while pressing toward the York River, with his little army, he was slain by malarial fever.

Dreadful persecutions of the republicans in Virginia now ensued. The King, disgusted with his cruel acts, recalled Berkeley (1677). After that the people were long oppressed by petty rulers, who were profligate and rapacious. When, at length, a revolution in England (1688) placed William of Orange and his wife Mary on the British throne, a real change for the better took place in Virginia.

In 1699 Williamsburg was founded and made the capital of Virginia. There the General Assembly met in the year 1700. A revision of the code was made in 1705, when it declared that negro slaves were real property. Such was the law until 1776.

Hostilities with the French broke out in 1754, they having built a line of military posts along the western slope of the Alleghany Mountains, in the rear of Virginia, at the head waters of the Ohio River. Governor Dinwiddie sent young George Washington on a diplomatic mission in 1753 to one of these posts. He discovered the intentions of the French, and the next year he led Virginia troops to confront this enemy. Virginia bore her share in the burdens imposed by the French and Indian war that ensued. When, soon after the close of that struggle, Great Britain began to oppress her colonies in America with her schemes of taxation, the Virginia House of Burgesses, under the lead of Patrick Henry, took a decided and patriotic stand in opposition. From that time until the breaking out of the old war for independence in 1775, the Virginians were conspicuous in maintaining the rights of the colonists.

Virginia was ably represented in the Continental Congress, which first assembled at Philadelphia in September, 1774. In the Congress of 1776, Richard Henry Lee, under instructions from the Legislature of Virginia, moved resolutions for the absolute independence of the English-American colonies; and another Virginian delegate in that body (Thomas Jefferson), wrote the famous Declaration of Independence. Already the royal Governor (Lord Dunmore) had begun a civil war within her borders, ravaging her coasts and burning Norfolk.

On the 29th of July, 1776, the colonial existence of Virginia was ended by the adoption of a State Constitution by a popular convention, when a State government was organized, with Patrick Henry as Chief Magistrate. Virginia has the honor of being the first of the English-American colonies to adopt a State Constitution with a view to a perpetual separation from Great Britain. On her soil, the fatal blow that dismembered the British Empire and made her colonies in America "free and independent States," was struck at Yorktown, when Cornwallis and his army surrendered to Washington. In 1779, Richmond, at the Falls of the James River, became the capital of the State, and so it remains.

In 1784, Virginia generously ceded to the United States its territory north-west of the Ohio River, which has since been organized into the States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin. The present State of Kentucky was a part of Virginia, and was erected into a separate Territory in 1789.

At the beginning of the war for independence, Virginia was the first to propose a Confederation of the States; and when, at the close of the war, it was perceived that the form of national government which had been adopted was inadequate, citizens of that State were among the first to propose a federal convention to remedy its defects. It was held at Philadelphia in 1787. Washington presided, and a National Constitution was formed, which was adopted by the people of the Union in 1788. But from the beginning the representatives of Virginia, in its State Legislature, were strenuous advocates of "State Sovereignty," and opposed measures which would make the States one Union. In June, 1779, her Legislature separately ratified the Treaty with France, and asserted in the fullest degree the absolute sovereignty of the separate States. And Patrick Henry vehemently condemned the phraseology of the preamble to the National Constitution, "We

the *People*," arguing that it should have been "We the *States*." So, also did George Mason, one of her wisest statesmen.

For many years the State of Virginia maintained a predominating influence in national affairs. During the second war for independence (1812-15) its coasts were ravaged by amphibious British marauders, especially the shores of Chesapeake Bay and its tributaries. In 1814, the British captured Alexandria, and burned portions of the City of Washington, on its borders. One of the most conspicuous military leaders in that war, General Winfield Scott, was a native of Virginia. Her statesmen have ever been conspicuous in the national councils; and because seven of its citizens have held the high position of Chief Magistrate of the Republic, it has been called "The Mother of Presidents."

In May, 1857, a zealous philanthropist named John Brown made an unwise and unlawful attempt to liberate the slaves of Virginia. His zeal had been intensified by sufferings in Kansas, where he had been an active anti-slavery champion during the Civil War there in 1855. With seventeen white men and five negroes he entered the village of Harper's Ferry, at the mouth of the Shenandoah River, on a very dark night, put out the street lights, seized the government armory and the railway bridge, and quietly arrested and imprisoned in the government buildings every citizen found in the streets at the early hours the next morning. He felt assured that when the first blow should be struck, the negroes of the surrounding country would join in the movement, and a general uprising of the slaves would occur. He was grievously mistaken. News of the affair went swiftly abroad by telegraph. Soon a large number of Virginia militia were flocking to Harper's Ferry, and a detachment of United States troops was sent there under Col. Robert E. Lee. After a brief conflict, Brown and his followers were captured. The leader was hanged. This mad movement was one of the important events, under Providence, which caused the final emancipation of all the slaves in the Republic.

Early in 1861, the question of Secession from the Union agitated the people. Virginia ranked among the "border States." The secessionists within its boundaries were very active, and labored for its coöperation with the Southern Confederacy of insurgents. The Legislature made an appropriation of \$100,000,000 for the "defense of the State." It recommended a Peace Congress, at the National Capital, of delegates from the several States to effect a compromise, after the insurgents had begun open war. It assem-

bled in February; Ex³-President John Tyler presided. It was fruitless of good.

A State convention was assembled at Richmond on February 13th, 1861, and on April 17 passed an ordinance of Secession. Immediately afterwards the State authorities took possession of national property within the limits of the commonwealth. On the 25th of the same month action was taken for the annexation of the State to the Southern Confederacy and surrendering the control of its military forces to the latter power. It was done, and on the 4th of May its representatives were admitted to seats in the "Confederate States" Congress at Montgomery, Alabama. Confederate troops were now thrown into the State for the purpose of seizing the National Capital, its archives and its treasury—a prime object of the insurgents.

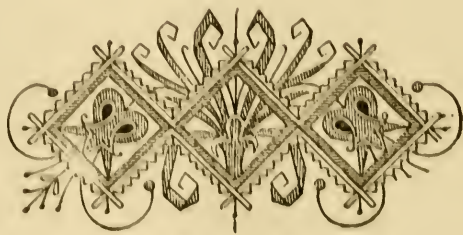
From that time until the close of the Civil War Virginia was dreadfully scourged by armies contending on its soil. Western Virginia had remained loyal to the Union, and its inhabitants organized a new State there. (See *Western Virginia*.)

Like other States of the Union, paralyzed by the operations of the insurgents, Virginia went through a process of resuscitation after the war. The State was placed under military control by the National Government. A new constitution was prepared by a State convention, which was ratified on July 6, 1869, by a majority of 197,044 votes out of a total of 215,422. It being in consonance with the Fourteenth Amendment of the National Constitution, State officers and representatives in Congress were elected, and in January, 1870, Virginia, reorganized, was allowed representation in Congress. On the 26th of that month, Gen. Canby, in command of the military department, formally transferred the government of the State to the civil authorities.

Virginia was greatly impoverished by the war. Her manufactories were destroyed and her agricultural operations were seriously crippled. The seat of the Confederate government had been transferred from Montgomery to Richmond. During the later period of the war, General Robert E. Lee, one of her sons, was Commander-in-chief of the Confederate armies; and on her soil, near Appomatox Court House, he surrendered the great army under his immediate command (April 9, 1865) to General Ulysses S. Grant. Already the Confederate civil government had fled from its capital (Richmond), which had been set on fire by order of the President of the Confederacy (Jefferson Davis) on his departure.

The State of Virginia, possessed of abundant natural resources and relieved from the burden of the slave-labor system, is rapidly recovering from the sad effects of its calamities.

Virginia is sometimes called "The Old Dominion." Queen Elizabeth regarded the vast and undefined domain in America, known as Virginia, as a fourth kingdom of her realm. Spencer, the friend of Raleigh, dedicated his poem the *Faery Queen* to "Elizabeth, Queen of England, France, Ireland and Virginia." When James I. succeeded Elizabeth, in 1603, Scotland was added, and Virginia was called, in compliment, the fifth kingdom. When Prince Charles, son of the beheaded King, was in exile, he was invited to come over and be King of Virginia. When he was on the throne as Charles II. the grateful monarch caused the arms of Virginia to be quartered with those of England, Scotland and Ireland as an independent member of the Empire. Coins with such quarterings were struck as late as 1773. These circumstances caused Virginia to receive the title of "The Old Dominion."



NEW YORK.

(1614.)



NEW YORK is called "The Empire State." It is fairly entitled to the dignity by the number of its people, its wealth, its populous cities, its canals and railways, the extent of its agricultural and manufactured productions, its public institutions for the benefit of society, and its political and social influence in the nation, as compared with the other States.

New York is one of the Middle Atlantic States, and one of the original thirteen. On its borders are the Dominion of Canada and the States of Vermont, Massachusetts, Connecticut, New Jersey and Pennsylvania, and the Atlantic Ocean. It lies between latitude $40^{\circ} 29' 40''$, and 45° N., and $71^{\circ} 51'$ and $79^{\circ} 45'$ W. longitude from Greenwich. The area of the State is 49,170 square miles; and the population in 1880 was 5,682,871, of whom 66,849 were colored, including 909 Chinese and 819 Indians. The population is now (1888) probably 6,000,000.

The natural scenery of New York is greatly diversified. It abounds in charming lakes, lofty mountains, beautiful rivers, fertile valleys and uplands, and in its western portion, in rich plains. On its north-eastern border is Lake Champlain, one hundred and forty miles in length; and on its western frontier is the magnificent cataract of Niagara, its immediate surroundings in New York now being a delightful public park for the free use of the people. In the Adirondack region, where *Ta-ha-was*, "the sky-piercer" (Mount Marcy), rises between five and six thousand feet above the sea level, is also a large reservation for a public park. In the extreme northern portion of the State the mountains slope down to the St. Lawrence level, and terminate on the western shores of Lake Champlain.

The climate of New York is salubrious and varied. The death-rate, even in its cities, is below the average of the country; and on its sea-shores and among its hills and mountains, it presents some of the most charming and

salutary health resorts in the world. It abounds in mineral springs, the healing properties of which are most remarkable.

In the middle portion of the State, not many miles from Lake Ontario, are apparently inexhaustible salt springs.

The history of the commonwealth of New York presents to the student a most attractive tale of romance. Undoubtedly the first European who trod its soil was Samuel Champlain, a famous French navigator, who, in the summer of 1609, came up the Sorel River in an Indian canoe, in company with Frenchmen and barbarians, into the Lake that now bears his name, and landed on its shores. At about the same time Henry Hudson, an English



GEORGE CLINTON, FIRST GOVERNOR OF NEW YORK.

navigator, employed by the Dutch East India Company, was approaching the Bay of New York, and entered it and the river that now bears his name, early in September. He sailed up that river in his little vessel (*Half Moon*) of ninety tons burthen, nearly to the site of Troy, one hundred and sixty miles.

Hudson discovered Man-na-hat-ta Island, on which the city of New York now stands, and the shores of the Ma-hic-can-nic, or River of the Mountains, abounding with human beings and fur-bearing animals. He hastened to Europe with the tidings of his great discovery, and very soon ships left the Texel with adventurers to open traffic with the barbarians of the newly-found regions in North America. The Dutch claimed that region as their own, by right of discovery, Hudson being in their employ.

Dutch adventurers established a trading-post at the southern end of Mannahatta or Manhattan Island in 1610, where they trafficked with the barbarians in the interior, who brought furs and peltries to them. A Dutch vessel laden with skins was about to depart for Holland when it took fire, and was burned, late in 1613. The crew built some log huts, felled timber, and constructing a rude vessel which they called *The Restless*, sailed for Europe with the cargo, in the spring of 1614. So began ship-building on the site of the great commercial city of New York.

Adventurers returning to Holland gave such glowing accounts of the newly discovered country that the States-General or National Congress of the Netherlands granted special privileges for traffic with the natives by Hollanders. A trading company was formed, and on October 11, 1614, they obtained a "charter of privileges" covering the region on the Atlantic coast between latitudes 40° and 45°, N., and indefinitely westward. The tract lay between Virginia and New France, as the St. Lawrence region was called. The country was named *New Netherland*.

The renewal of this charter being denied at its expiration, Dutch merchants revised a scheme formed in 1607 for the establishment of a Dutch West India Company. They succeeded in obtaining from the States-General a charter for such a company on June 3, 1620. It was made not only a great commercial monopoly, but it was invested with almost regal power to colonize, govern and defend the domain.

Meanwhile the traders at Manhattan, had ascended the River of the Mountains (now the Hudson) to the site of Albany and into the Mohawk Valley, and had made a most remarkable discovery. They found in the vast forests in the interior a well-organized barbarian Republic, composed of five confederated tribes of Indians, well governed by efficient laws and possessing vast offensive and defensive strength. This Republic, known as the "Iroquois Confederacy," afterwards played an important part in the history of New York, particularly in the colonial period. The Dutch early made treaties with these barbarians.

The "Dutch West India Company" was organized in 1622. King James of England reminded the States-General that Hollanders were intruding on English soil. It was claimed that the grant to the Plymouth and London Companies (see *Virginia*) covered the land westward to the Pacific Ocean. But the Hollanders paid no attention to the growl of the British lion.

At that time there was in Holland a class of refugees from persecution,

called Walloons—natives of the present region of Southern Belgium. They were Protestants, who had made their abode in Holland, then an asylum for the oppressed. They were a hardy people and had desired to settle in Virginia. They accepted proposals from the Dutch West India Company to go to New Netherland; and early in March, 1623, thirty families of the Walloons, comprising one hundred and ten men, women and children, sailed from the Texel in the *New Netherland*, a ship of two hundred tons burthen, with agricultural implements, live stock of every kind, and a sufficient quantity of household furniture. They reached Manhattan at the beginning of May. Some seated themselves on that island; some went to the banks of the Delaware across New Jersey; others up the Hudson River; some to the Valley of the Connecticut, and others to Long Island. Thus was planted the fruitful seed of the State of New York.

The Company nurtured the colony. In 1624, a shadow of civil government appeared in the installation of Captain May, of the *New Netherland*, as Director of the colony. In 1626, the Company sent over Peter Minuit as Governor, who bought the whole of Manhattan Island—about twenty thousand acres—from the natives, for twenty-four dollars. He built a quadrangular fortification at its southern extremity, which he named Fort Amsterdam, and the rude village that was growing near it was afterwards called New Amsterdam.

In 1629, the Company gave to the settlers a charter of "privileges and exemptions," which encouraged the emigration of thrifty farmers from the fatherland. As much land was offered to the emigrants as they could cultivate, with free "liberty of hunting and fowling." At the same time grants of extensive domains, with manorial privileges, were offered to wealthy persons who should induce a sufficient number of settlers to people and cultivate these lands. These persons were called *Patroons*. By this operation much of the most valuable lands in the country went into the possession of wealthy men. Among the more extensive owners of these patroon lands was Killian Van Rensselaer, an opulent pearl merchant of Amsterdam, and member of the Company, who bought of the Indians a vast domain on both sides of the Hudson, near Albany.

New Netherland had now been constituted a county of Holland. It flourished in spite of the mal-administration of two of its governors, the absurd Walter Van Twiller and the fiery and unscrupulous William Keift. The former was stupid; the latter was shrewd, grasping and tyrannical when

he dared to be. He involved the colony in quarrels and wars with the neighboring Indians which brought it to the verge of ruin at times. At length Peter Stuyvesant, a bold, strong and honest Friedlander, a soldier who had lost a leg in battle, and had been Governor of Curaçoa, came to New Netherland as Director-general of the province. He ruled with justice but with an iron hand. A Swedish colony had settled on the Delaware River within the claimed domain of New Netherland in spite of Keift's bluster. Stuyvesant soon subdued them, extinguished "New Sweden," annexed it to New Netherland, and made peace with the Indians. He had much trouble with democracy among the people and vainly tried to crush it; and he was annoyed by the claims of the English to the Connecticut Valley and westward of it.

But a greater trouble vexed the soul of Peter Stuyvesant when, in August, 1664, a British land and naval force appeared before New Amsterdam, and its commander demanded the surrender of the whole province into the hands of the intruder. New Amsterdam was then an incorporated city with a burgher government. The English had never relinquished their claim that New Netherland was a part of Virginia, and it was forcibly asserted by Charles II., in the Spring of 1664, when he granted the whole domain, including all (present) New Jersey, to his brother, the Duke of York. Colonel Richard Nicolls commanded the invading forces. Stuyvesant, though too weak to successfully resist, sturdily refused to surrender, until he was compelled to by the public voice. The city and colony passed into the possession of the English on September 8, 1664, and were named "New York" in compliment to the Duke. Colonel Nicolls was made the first English Governor.

In August, 1673, New York was taken by a Dutch force, while war was raging between England and Holland, but it was returned to the English, by treaty, in 1674, and remained a British province until 1776.

The Dutch, who had felt the "tyranny" of Stuyvesant's rule, and longed for the "freedom of New England," anticipated much happiness from the change, but were sorely mistaken. The Duke's governing magistrates were quite as despotic, and were less acceptable than Dutch rulers to Dutch subjects.

In 1683, Thomas Dongan, an enlightened Roman Catholic, was made Governor of New York. He called a representative assembly chosen by the people, and a "Charter of Liberties" was given to the colonists by consent of the Duke. This was the germ of representative government in New York.

When the Duke became King James II., he did not fulfill his promises made through Dongan, and the privileges of the charter were denied. He sent another Governor (Andros) who oppressed the people.

When James was driven from the throne of England in 1688, and William of Orange and his wife Mary ascended it, the chief magistrate at New York (Nicholson) abandoned his post. At the request of the people, Jacob Leisler, a merchant of republican tendencies, administered the government until a royal Governor was sent over. Leisler had bitter enemies among the aristocracy; and when the Governor came they procured the arrest of the popular leader, and his son-in-law, Millborne, on a charge of treason. Having intoxicated the Governor with strong liquor they procured his signature to death warrants and Leisler and Millborne were executed. This event caused a wonderful stimulus to the growth of democracy in New York.

During this political trouble western and northern New York was the scene of fierce hostilities between the French and Indians of Canada and the Five Nations of the Great Confederacy. The Confederacy was friendly with the English, and the French turned upon the former. A party of French and Indians burned Schenectady in February, 1690, and murdered many of the inhabitants. The colony now made common cause with the Confederacy, and from 1702 until 1713 hostilities between them and the French prevailed. Lake Champlain became a theatre of war. The French built a fort at Crown Point; and in 1745 a party of French and Indians penetrated the upper valley of the Hudson and laid waste Saratoga.

Meanwhile the colony had become the theatre of warm political strife between the adherents of democracy and royalty during the administration of several governors. There was a notable struggle for the freedom of the press in the trial of John Peter Zenger, publisher of a newspaper, for libel, in criticising the official acts of the public officers. The decision of the jury in July, 1735, was in Zenger's favor. That decision "was the germ of American freedom—the morning-star of that liberty which subsequently revolutionized America."

The relation between the English and the Iroquois confederacy remained generally friendly down to the Revolution in 1775. In 1754, an important convention of representatives of the English-American colonies was held at Albany chiefly for the purpose of strengthening the bond with these barbarians. At that convention, a political union of the colonies was proposed and discussed. A plan, drawn by Dr. Franklin, was adopted. Its

features were similar to that of the National Constitution, adopted more than thirty years afterwards.

In the struggle for supremacy in America known as the French and Indian war, New York bore its full share of the burdens imposed by it; and it took a conspicuous part in the ten years' quarrel which ensued between the English-American colonies and the mother country, before the kindling of the old war for independence. From the time of the trial of Zenger, until 1775, the history of the State was largely the history of opposing political parties—a struggle for self-government on the part of the people.

During the Stamp Act and other excitements, New York tried to be loyal and yet be faithful to the interests for freedom of the people. It often appeared less zealous for liberty than Massachusetts and Virginia; but when the blow was struck at Lexington and Bunker Hill, no Province or State became more earnest for liberty than New York. Fort Ticonderoga on Lake Champlain was captured in May, 1775, and very soon the sons of New York, under the leadership of Generals Schuyler and Montgomery, joined with others, pressed toward Canada, seizing Montreal, and besieging Quebec amid the snows of winter. This invasion was a failure.

In the Fall of 1777, New Yorkers swarmed around the invading army under Burgoyne and compelled him to surrender. They drove St. Leger and his Canadians, Tories and Indians, from the Mohawk Valley back to Lake Ontario, and saved the whole country from the consummation of one of the most dangerous schemes of conquest concocted by the British authorities. When the armed struggle ceased, the city of New York became the theatre of the last act in the great drama—the departure, in November, 1783, of the last hostile British soldier from the shores of America, and the flight of crowds of Loyalists to distant British provinces.

Meanwhile the people of New York, in a representative convention, assembled at Kingston in Ulster County in the spring of 1777, formed a State constitution, and during the succeeding summer, organized a State government with General George Clinton, Governor. In October following a British marauding force broke through the barriers at the Highlands, where they had captured Forts Clinton and Montgomery, and went up the Hudson, and burned Kingston. The new State legislature fled to Poughkeepsie, in Dutchess county, where frequent sessions were afterwards held until Albany became the permanent seat of government in 1797.

Before and after the Revolution the authorities of New York had bitter

controversies with those of (present) Vermont concerning territorial and political jurisdiction over what was termed the "New Hampshire Grants." Open hostilities were sometimes threatened, but the matter was finally settled by compromise. (See *Vermont*.)

At the close of the war, attention was wisely directed to the development of the resources of the State. A campaign against the Indians in the Genessee country under General Sullivan, in 1779, had revealed the natural richness and beauty of the interior of the State, and a tide of emigration thither speedily set in from New England and elsewhere. Population rapidly increased. New counties were organized and great internal improvements were begun.

During the closing decade of the last century, the practical development of the canal systems of the State was initiated. Two "Inland Lock Navigation" companies were formed, of which General Philip Schuyler was President. The Northern or Champlain Canal, which connects the Hudson River with Lake Champlain, was constructed, and the Western Canal was completed to Oneida Lake in 1796. This was the germ of the great Erie Canal, which was actually begun in 1817, and completed in 1825, at a cost of over \$9,000,000. Its subsequent enlargement cost \$25,000,000.

The form of national government adopted at near the close of the war for independence, proved to be untrustworthy as a bond of union for the States. A convention held at Philadelphia in the summer of 1787, framed a new constitution of government, which was submitted to the people of the several States. Those of New York, in representative convention, assembled at Poughkeepsie in the summer of 1788, ratified the great instrument, and ever afterwards the Commonwealth was ably represented in both Houses of the National Congress.

It was on the Hudson River, in New York, that successful navigation by steam power was first accomplished, in 1807; and the first passenger railway operated in America was constructed between the Hudson and Mohawk rivers, connecting Albany and Schenectady by an iron bond.

During the second war for independence (1812-15), the northern frontier of New York bordering on Canada became the scene of many stirring military events, from Buffalo to Ogdensburgh and below. The contests on the Niagara frontier were specially notable. They were chiefly on the Canada side of the rapid strait between Lakes Erie and Ontario. There were severe struggles at Queenstown, Niagara Falls or Lundy's Lane, Chippewa, Fort

Erie and Black Rock. Also at Forts George and Niagara at the mouth of the river. On Lake Ontario were stirring naval operations. At Sacketts Harbor was a notable struggle, and on the St. Lawrence borders were sharp conflicts. Lake Champlain was witness to a momentous strife between the military and naval forces of America and Great Britain in September, 1814. From New York harbor, the great seaport of the State, went out many privateers that achieved conquests which gave renown to the American navy.

The first public proposition to abolish negro slavery in New York was made by Governor Jay in 1794. It was repeated by Governor Tompkins in 1817; and this measure was finally accomplished in full in 1827. There had been in colonial times two alarming events connected with slavery in the city of New York, known as "Negro Plots;" one in 1712, the other in 1741. There appears to have been no reasonable foundation for suspicion of a conspiracy of the negroes in either case.

The constitution of the State has been revised several times—in 1801, 1821, 1846 and in 1867-'8. Each revision was marked by a notable advance in giving freedom to the people from oligarchic power. In the last revision several important amendments were proposed. The instrument was submitted to the people at the general fall election in 1869, when it was rejected, excepting a section providing for the election of the higher court judges by the people for a term of fourteen years, or until they should reach the age of seventy years. In November, 1874, several amendments proposed by the Legislature were ratified by a vote of the people. These abolished the property qualifications of colored voters; restricted the power of the Legislature to pass private or local bills; made changes in the executive departments; prescribed an oath of office in relation to bribery; established safeguards against official corruption, and removed restrictions imposed on the Legislature in regard to selling or leasing certain of the State canals.

The Commonwealth was in a state of great prosperity, when the tempest of civil war burst upon the nation. When the overt act of war was performed in Charleston harbor, at the beginning of 1861, the Legislature of New York and the people generally took a bold stand in support of the Union. When, at near the middle of April, the insurgents attacked Fort Sumter, and the President called upon the nation for means to quell the hostile movements in the slave-labor States, New York was foremost in furnishing men and money for the salvation of the Republic. The great metropolis and the rural districts were alike animated by the most intense patriotism and enthusiasm.

Capitalists, with the most sublime faith in the cause, poured millions of money into the treasury of the Republic. Before the close of 1861, the loyal people of the State had loaned to the National Government \$210,000,000, and at the close of the war the Commonwealth had furnished 473,443 soldiers for the conflict, and disbursed among them for bounties alone, \$35,000,000, in addition to other enormous expenses.

In 1867 the Legislature adopted the Fourteenth Amendment to the National Constitution, which guaranteed the rights of every citizen of whatever hue and social condition; defined the status in regard to public office of men who had engaged in the rebellion, and forbade the payment of any part of the Confederate debt by the Nation or by a State. Since that time New York has gone on steadily on its bounding career. Although its territory includes less than one sixty-third of the whole country, its inhabitants form one-tenth of the entire population. Its twenty-five cities contain, in the aggregate, between one-fifth and one-fourth of the entire urban population of the United States.

New York is the foremost manufacturing State in the Union, and largely so of the products of almost every industry. The assessed valuation of its real and personal property in 1880 was equal in amount to one-seventh of the valuation of the entire real and personal property of the whole Republic. It was the same in amount as that of the whole of New England.

But the highest glory of New York consists in its magnificent provision for public instruction, and its munificent and varied charities. While it has only one-tenth of the population of the Republic, its expenditures for popular education in all its phases is more than one-eighth of that of the whole Union. It has nine normal schools for the instruction of teachers, for which it expended almost \$300,000 in 1886, and \$14,000,000 the same year for the support of public schools.

The intelligence of a large community, like a State, may be fairly measured by the activity of its printing presses, especially of those which distribute intelligence through newspapers and magazines. In 1880, New York produced nearly one-third, in value, of the books published in the United States. It also issued nearly one-eighth of all the magazines or "periodicals," and nearly one-eighth of all the newspapers issued in the Republic. Of the aggregate circulation of the *daily* newspapers in the Union, New York furnished between one-fourth and one-third. In the same proportion were its issues of weeklies and all other periodicals in the United States.

MASSACHUSETTS.

(1620.)



THE earliest settled of the Eastern or New England States, was Massachusetts. It was one of the original thirteen States of the Union, lying between $41^{\circ} 14'$ and $42^{\circ} 53'$ north latitude, and $69^{\circ} 53'$ and $73^{\circ} 32'$ west longitude. On its eastern and south-eastern border is the Atlantic Ocean.

Along its southern border stretches Connecticut; on its western, New York, and on its northern, Vermont and New Hampshire.

The Commonwealth comprises in its total area, including islands, 8,315 square miles of territory. Its coast line is deeply indented with bays, harbors and sounds, and its islands are numerous. The name of the State signifies "The Blue Hills," in the Indian tongue. The first settlement was made on Cape Cod Bay, the southern portion of a great gulf, of which Massachusetts Bay forms the northern part.

The topography of Massachusetts is exceedingly picturesque, especially in the western part, where the Green Mountain range crosses the State in broken ridges of moderate elevation. Its climate is quite severe in winter, but very salubrious. Its soil is not generally very fertile, but is rendered productive by the skill and industry of the people. The principal river in the State is the Connecticut, which flows in from Vermont, intersects the State, and traverses Connecticut to Long Island Sound.

There appears to be conclusive evidence that navigators from Iceland visited the shores of south-eastern Massachusetts at the beginning of the 11th century, and called the country "Vineland," because of the abundance of grapes which they found there. It is conjectured that Sebastian Cabot, who discovered the coasts of Labrador and Maine in 1498, sailed along those of Massachusetts, and that Verazzani, an Italian in the French service, visited that region in 1524.

The shores of Massachusetts were explored by Bartholomew Gosnold in 1602, by Samuel Champlain in 1604, and by John Smith in 1614. Gosnold

made an attempt to found a settlement on one of the Elizabeth Islands, which he had discovered. Captain Smith made a map of much of the coast of New England, which name was given to the region at that time.

An association called the Plymouth Company obtained from King James I. a charter for a domain situated between latitude 41° and 45° north. They made various attempts at colonization, but failed. The first permanent settlement effected under the auspices of the Company was on the shores of Cape Cod Bay, late in 1620, by a company of English Puritans, who had taken refuge in Holland from persecution in their own country a few years



JOHN HANCOCK, FIRST GOVERNOR OF MASSACHUSETTS.

before. They had formed a Church at Leyden, with John Robinson as pastor, and called themselves "Pilgrims."

These Puritans made arrangements with the Plymouth Company and some London merchants for planting a settlement in America. One hundred and one men, women, and children, embarked in the *Mayflower*, a little vessel of 180 tons burthen, at the middle of September (N. S.), 1620, and left the vessel on the snow-clad shores of Cape Cod Bay on December 22 (N. S.), where they constructed some log huts and called the place New Plymouth. In the cabin of the *Mayflower* the men had signed a form of government by which they were to be ruled, and chose John Carver Governor of the Colony for one year.

It was the first instrument of civil government ever subscribed as the act

of a whole people, and may be regarded as the foundation of civil and religious liberty in the Western World. It read as follows:

"In the name of God, Amen. We whose names are underwritten, the Loyal Subjects of our dread Sovereign King James, by the Grace of God, of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, King, Defender of the Faith, etc., Having undertaken, for the Glory of God and the advancement of the Christian Faith, and honor of our King and Country, a Voyage to plant the first Colony in the Northern parts of Virginia; Do, by these Presents, solemnly and mutually, in the Presence of God, and of one another, Consent and Combine ourselves together into a Civil body Politic, for our Ordering and Preservation, and Furtherance of the ends aforesaid; and by Virtue hereof, to enact, constitute and frame just and equal Laws, Ordinances, Acts, Constitutions, and Offices from Time to Time as shall be thought most meet and convenient for the General Good of the Colony; unto which we promise all due Submission and Obedience. In witness whereof we have hereunto subscribed our Names at Cape Cod the eleventh of November [O. S.], in the year of the Reign of our Sovereign Lord, King James, Of England, France and Ireland, the Eighteenth and of Scotland the Fifty-fourth, Anno Domini, 1620."

Cold, unwholesome food and privations produced sickness that destroyed nearly one-half their number in four months. Among the victims was the Governor, who was succeeded by William Bradford. Elder William Brewster was their spiritual guide and wise counsellor. They made a treaty of friendship with the sachems of the surrounding Indian tribes, and in petty hostilities with other barbarians, Captain Miles Standish, a valiant little soldier, was very useful.

Other Puritans joined the Pilgrims, and other settlements were soon attempted. The colony at Plymouth suffered much until the autumn of 1623, when bountiful harvests rewarded their industry and food was made plentiful. Then the community system of labor was abandoned, the partnership with the London merchants was dissolved, and the colonists became sole proprietors in 1627.

This desirable arrangement was made by a contract on the part of the Colonists, to pay to the Company of Adventurers the sum of \$9,000 in nine equal instalments, beginning with the following year. The Adventurers agreed to convey to the Planters "Every their stocks, shares, lands, merchandise, and chattels," and discharge the latter from their contract of "service and partnership." It was a hazardous speculation for the Planters, for they "knew not

well how to raise the money, and discharge their other engagements, and supply their yearly wants, seeing they were forced for their necessities to take up moneys or goods at a very high rate of interest." Eight of the chief men became jointly bound as sureties for the payment of the whole sum.

A new organization and distribution were now adopted. A partnership was formed of all the men on the spot, of "suitable age and prudence" under an agreement that the trade should be managed by them as a joint-stock company, and that "every free man should have a single share and every father of a family also be allowed to purchase a share for his wife, and a share for every child he had living with him." One cow and two goats were assigned, by lot, to every six persons as shares, and swine in proportion. To every person or share was assigned twenty acres of land. The houses became private property.

An English company obtained a grant of territory on Massachusetts Bay, the northern part of the gulf, and in 1628 sent 100 settlers, with John Endicott as Governor, who planted a colony on the site of (present) Salem. Others soon joined them, when, in 1629, a royal charter was obtained for the "Massachusetts Bay Company." The country was ever afterwards called "The Bay State."

Large reinforcements now came. New settlements were planted, and farming implements and live stock were furnished to the settlers. In 1630, when the colony numbered one thousand souls, John Winthrop, who had come with many new settlers, was elected Governor. The charter and the corporate powers of the company had been transferred from England to Massachusetts, and so the foundations of the Commonwealth were firmly laid. Winthrop and many others had founded a settlement which they named Boston, and it became the capital of the colony.

For a while religious intolerance marked the rulers in Church and State in Massachusetts. These refugees from intolerance, zealous of their liberties, became more intolerant themselves, and Churchman and Quaker were persecuted. Roger Williams, an eccentric Puritan preacher at Salem, was banished from the colony because of his earnest championship of "Soul liberty." (See *Rhode Island*.)

In 1637 the colony was disturbed by war with the Pequods of Connecticut, but danger was soon overpast. Greater danger to their liberties appeared in the action of King Charles I., who demanded the surrender of their charter to the Crown. The colonists prepared to resist the unrighteous demand.

During the civil war in England, which soon ensued, they were unmolested; but on the restoration of monarchy, in 1660, their political troubles were revived, for Charles II. claimed supreme jurisdiction in Massachusetts.

The colonists sent a commission to England in 1662, who obtained a confirmation of their charter and a conditional amnesty for offenders during the troubles between royalty and the people. At the same time the monarch demanded the repeal of all laws contrary to his sovereign authority; also an oath of allegiance to the Crown; the administration of justice in his name; the complete toleration of the Church of England in Massachusetts, and a concession of the elective franchise to every man having a competent estate. Hitherto only Church members were allowed to vote.

In 1664 royal commissioners arrived at Boston to investigate and regulate the affairs of the colony. The people would have nothing to do with them, and they returned home. The King reproved the authorities of Massachusetts, and ordered the Governor to his presence. The Governor refused to go, and there the matter rested.

A conflict with the neighboring Indians, known as "King Philip's War," broke out in 1675, and severely scourged the colonists. A dozen towns, 6,000 houses, and over 600 men, women and children of the colonists perished during the struggle. One in twenty of the men had fallen, and one in twenty families were made homeless. The cost of the war was half a million dollars.

The royal pretensions to rule the colony were renewed after the war, and in 1684 the High Court of Chancery declared the charter of Massachusetts forfeited to the Crown. Joseph Dudley was appointed royal Governor; the General Assembly chosen by the people was dissolved; and a royal commission superseded the charter government. Sir Edmund Andros succeeded Dudley and ruled tyrannically. The people submitted most impatiently. They were finally relieved when the last Stuart King was driven from the throne in 1688. Then the men of Boston seized and imprisoned Andros, and sent him, a fugitive, to England.

Massachusetts received a new charter in 1692, by which New Plymouth was united with it. The Commonwealth then included 40,000 inhabitants. It was divided into several counties. Its Governor and Secretary were appointed by the King, and its laws were invalid until approved by the monarch. It was at about this time that the fearful delusion known as "Salem witchcraft" disturbed the colony for six months.

In 1692 the General Assembly of Massachusetts, after the receipt of the

new charter, passed a declaration of the rights of the colony, which embodied the grand postulate enunciated seventy years afterwards by the English-American colonies—"Taxation without Representation is Tyranny."

At various times the colony was smitten by invading French and Indian bands, who first broke over the border in 1703 and 1704; and from that time until the close of the Seven Years, or French and Indian war, in 1763, the province was compelled to participate in the intercolonial wars for its own defense. In the war that broke out in 1745, Massachusetts contributed largely of men and money in the capture of Louisburg and in attempts to injure Canada. It also bore its full share of the burden imposed by the French and Indian war, and in the ten years' quarrel between the English-American Colonies and Great Britain, which preceded the old war for independence, it took a foremost position.

General Gage, the royal Governor of Massachusetts, had summoned a meeting of the General Assembly at Salem in October, 1774; but, perceiving the increasing boldness of the people under the influence of the proceedings of the Continental Congress, he countermanded the summons. The members denied his right to do so, and met at Salem on the appointed day (October 5), ninety in number. After waiting two days for the Governor, who did not appear, they organized themselves into a Provincial Congress, with John Hancock, a wealthy merchant and ardent patriot of Boston, as President. Benjamin Lincoln, afterwards a general in the Continental army, was appointed Secretary.

The Congress adjourned to Concord, where, on the 11th, 260 members took their seats. They adjourned to Cambridge, and sent word to the Governor that for want of a legal Assembly they had formed a Provisional Convention. They freely censured the late unlawful acts of Parliament; protested against the casting up fortifications on Boston Neck by the Governor, as a menace to the liberties of the people, and expressed their loyalty to the King. Gage denounced them as fomenters of sedition. This measure stimulated their zeal.

The Congress appointed a Committee of Safety, to whom they delegated large powers, authorizing them to call out the militia of the province, and to perform other functions of sovereignty. Another Committee was appointed, with authority to procure ammunition and military stores, for which purpose more than \$60,000 were appropriated. They appointed a Receiver-general, into whose hands the constables and tax-collectors were directed to pay all

moneys received by them. They also made provisions for arming the province, and appointed three general officers to command the militia—Jeremiah Preble, Artemus Ward and Seth Pomeroy. The enrolment of 12,000 minute-men was authorized. The Congress having assumed both legislative and executive powers, it received the willing allegiance of the people generally. Gage issued a proclamation denouncing these proceedings, to which no attention was paid.

So ended royal authority in Massachusetts, and the beginning of independent self-government in that province. This was perfected by the choice of representatives for a new Assembly, who were elected at town meetings, in accordance with the directions of the Continental Congress. The citizens of Boston, who were scattered, met at Concord and chose their representatives. These and others met at Cambridge on July 19, 1775, when the Provincial Congress was dissolved and the new Assembly began the restoration of regular civil government in the colony. They chose James Warren, of Plymouth, as their Speaker.

Upon the soil of Massachusetts the first Continental army was organized and there the first clash of arms resounded. All through the war she was among the foremost in the council and in the field. On March 2, 1780, a State constitution was adopted, and a State government was organized under it, with John Hancock as its first Governor. The General Assembly had virtually declared the province independent of the British Crown (May 2, 1776), two months before the great Declaration was adopted.

The Constitution adopted in 1780, and amended several times since, still remains the fundamental law of the Commonwealth. It was even decided that by a clause in its Bill of Rights African slavery was abolished. The people of the State ratified the National Constitution in January, 1788.

The poverty and distress of the people caused some of them in the interior of the State to resist taxation. The taxes of the State amounted annually to the then enormous sum of \$1,000,000. Artful demagogues stirred up the people to rebellion. The working men were arrayed by them against the capitalists. The government of Massachusetts was held responsible for every evil suffered by the people. Finally, an armed insurrection, led by Daniel Shays, a captain in the Continental army, broke out. He led 1,000 men in arms. The movement soon became formidable, and General Benjamin Lincoln, in command of several thousand militia, suppressed it. That was in

1786. In January, 1788, the people of the State ratified the National Constitution.

In the division of parties at the beginning of the present century, a majority of the citizens of Massachusetts were of the Federal party, and, as a body, they opposed the war with England, which began in 1812. That war was disastrous to the commerce of that section of the Union. During the war New England furnished great numbers of seamen for the National navy, and swarms of privateers went out from the ports of Massachusetts.

At a convention of delegates assembled at Hartford late in 1814 to consider the state of the country, Massachusetts was fully represented, and one of its citizens (George Cabot) presided over its deliberations. Massachusetts and other New England States were charged with disloyalty because of their continued opposition to the war, but unquestionable patriotism dominated the intense conservatism of the people.

In the year 1820 the district of Maine was separated from Massachusetts, and made an independent commonwealth. (See *Maine*.) The State from the beginning was one of the most prosperous in the Union; and when, in 1861, civil war began, no State was more loyal and active in support of the Republic than Massachusetts. During the war it furnished 159,165 men to the National army and navy, of whom 3749 were killed in battle; 9086 died from wounds and disease; 15,645 discharged for disability contracted in the service, and 5866 not accounted for. The State expended on account of the war over \$30,000,000.

Massachusetts is one of the heaviest manufacturing States in the Union, especially of textile fabrics. The cotton manufactures of the "Bay State" employed 62,903 operatives, running 4,465,290 spindles in 1880. Its fisheries are very extensive and productive, aggregating more than half the product of all New England. The State contains about 2,200 miles of railroad in operation, which cost almost \$153,000,000. They are all prosperous, and form a complete network, crossing each other in all directions.

From the beginning the education of the young was made a prime object in the affairs of State. In 1649 provision was made for the establishment of common schools in the province. Every township was required to maintain a school for instruction in reading and writing, and every town of one hundred families was required to have a grammar school, with a teacher qualified to "fit youths for the University." That University was Harvard College, the first of the higher seminaries of learning established in America.

It was liberally endowed by the Rev. John Harvard. The college was founded in 1637, with Henry Dunster, a Hebrew scholar, as its first president. There are now in the State seven universities and colleges. In 1880 there were 306,777 children enrolled in public schools, with an average attendance of 235,664. The public school expenditures in 1880 were \$4,720,951.

The population of Massachusetts in 1885 was 1,941,465, including over 19,000 colored persons, which embrace Indians and Chinese. Boston, its capital, contained in 1885, 390,406.

Immense numbers of the inhabitants of Massachusetts have emigrated to other portions of the Union. It is estimated that the number of persons who, born in that Commonwealth, have emigrated to other States, is equal, at least, to its present resident population. These emigrants have exercised a "marked influence in moulding the social and political institutions of their adopted States."

NEW HAMPSHIRE.

(1623.)



NEW HAMPSHIRE, one of the New England States and an original member of the Union, lies between latitude $40^{\circ} 42' 30''$ and $45^{\circ} 18'$ north, and $70^{\circ} 43' 40''$ and $72^{\circ} 33'$ west longitude. On its narrow northern and north-eastern border is the province of Quebec, in the Dominion of Canada. On the east is Maine and a small portion of the Atlantic Ocean; on the south is Massachusetts, and on the west is Vermont, over which it originally claimed territorial jurisdiction. The Commonwealth embraces an area of 9,305 square miles, and a population in 1880 of 346,991, including 762 colored persons. It has only eighteen miles of sea-coast, and its only good harbor for large vessels is at Portsmouth.

The surface of New Hampshire is broken and mountainous. The small strip of sea-coast is low and level, and a part of it is marshy for several miles inland. The country rises rapidly as it recedes from the coast. The group of lofty hills known as the "White Mountains" occupy a space of about twenty miles in length, chiefly in Coos County, near the north-eastern border of the State. The highest peak is Mount Washington, rising to the height of 6226 feet above the sea level. There are five other peaks ranging in height from 4000 to 5759 feet. The region is styled "The Switzerland of America."

The short line of sea-coast of New Hampshire was probably discovered by Martin Pring or Prynne, who, in April, 1603, sailed from Bristol, England, with two vessels, to complete discoveries begun by Gosnold. They entered Penobscot Bay early in June, and afterwards sailed along the coast to Martin's (corrupted to Martha's) Vineyard, an island so called in honor of Pring, and because of the abundance of grapes found there. Other voyagers traversed the same New England coasts in a short space of time afterwards. Captain John Smith visited the coast of New Hampshire and the Piscataqua River in 1614.

Sir Ferdinando Gorges, an active member of the Plymouth Company, set

sail from England for America in 1615, after the return of Captain Smith, but was driven back by a storm. The company acquired a new charter under the title of the Council of Plymouth, from whence Gorges and Captain John Mason, both zealous churchmen and royalists, obtained a grant (1622) of all the territory between the Merrimack and the Kennebec rivers and the sea-coast, sixty miles inland (to the St. Lawrence River), which they designed to call the Province of Maine. They named the great domain "Laconia," and, to forestall the French settlements in the east, and to secure the country to Protestants, Gorges procured a grant from Sir William Alexander of the whole mainland eastward of the St. Croix River, excepting a small part of Acadia, now Nova Scotia.



JOSIAH BARTLETT, FIRST GOVERNOR OF NEW HAMPSHIRE.

Mason (a merchant, and afterwards a naval commander and secretary of the Council of Plymouth—"a man of action") had already obtained a grant of land (1621) extending from Salem to the mouth of the Merrimack, which he called "Mariana"; and the same year a colony of fishermen seated themselves at Little Harbor on the Piscataqua, just below the site of (present) Portsmouth. Other fishermen settled on the site of Dover in 1623, and very soon other fishing stations were planted; but there was no permanent settlement until 1629, when Mason built a house near the mouth of the Piscataqua and called the place Portsmouth.

In the same year Mason and Gorges agreed to divide their domain in New England at the Piscataqua, when the former obtained a patent for the western portion. He had been Governor of Portsmouth in Hampshire,

England, and he gave to his province the name of New Hampshire, and to the permanent settlement, Portsmouth, in commemoration of the place with which he had been associated. His domain included all islands within five leagues of his coast-front. He sent over other colonists, with cattle, mills, etc., in contemplation of a great plantation. The little settlements flourished, Dover soon taking the precedence in prosperity. The Rev. Mr. Wheelwright, a brother of the notable Ann Hutchinson of Boston, had purchased from the Indians a tract of the wilderness, and founded Exeter.

The progress of settlement was retarded by the death of Mason just as he was about to embark from England for America in 1635, bearing the commission of Vice-Admiral of New England. He was buried in Westminster Abbey. His domain passed into possession of his retainers in payment for past services. These settlers were nearly all Churchmen.

Very soon the intrigues, the vigor and the enterprise of the authorities of Massachusetts introduced among the settlers in New Hampshire an active Puritan element, which soon obtained control of public affairs, and in 1641 all the settlements were annexed to Massachusetts. New Hampshire remained a dependent of the Bay State until 1680, when the annex became a separate royal province. Mason's heirs in England prosecuted claims to his proprietary interest, which resulted in the emancipation of New Hampshire and the establishment there of a government in which the President and Council were appointed by the King, and the people elected a Legislative Assembly. In 1692 a royal commission established a new government, which continued until the old war for independence.

The settlements in New Hampshire gradually extended westward, and, until 1764, it was supposed that the territory, now Vermont, was included in that of New Hampshire, and grants of land were made by the authorities of the latter province. The commission of Benning Wentworth, its first royal Governor (1741-1767), included all the territory "to the boundaries of his Majesty's other provinces." This was quite indefinite. The Governor so construed it that he issued grants of land to settlers between the Connecticut River and Lake Champlain. The Duke of York's patent in 1664 (see *New York*) caused the authorities of the latter to claim the Connecticut River as its eastern boundary. A violent dispute finally arose which, at one time, threatened a serious civil war. (See *Vermont*.)

For about three-fourths of a century (1675-1750) the inhabitants suffered dreadfully from the Indians, who frequently made marauding and scalping

incursions among the settlements. These incursions were often incited and sometimes led by the French in Canada.

One of the most notable tragedies of the time occurred at Dover in the summer of 1689. There resided Richard Waldron, a native of England, who had lived there since 1645. He was a leading man in the province in civil and military affairs—a councillor, chief justice, and governor or president. He had taken an active part in King Philip's war, and had greatly enraged the barbarians by a treacherous act at one time. He invited Indians to a treaty at Dover, when he seized several hundred of them, and hung or sold into slavery two hundred.

For thirteen years Waldron's cruel act filled the minds and hearts of the barbarians with a burning desire for revenge. At length an opportunity occurred. In June, 1689, when Indians were continually visiting and passing through Dover on peaceful errands, a fearful plot was suddenly evolved. More than the usual number of Indians were in the town on a pleasant June day. Some of the people felt uneasy, but Major Waldron, who knew them well, did not suspect them of mischievous intentions.

At that time there were five garrisoned houses at Dover. It had been arranged by the barbarians that on an appointed night two squads should go to each of the garrisoned houses in the evening and ask leave to lodge; then, when the people were asleep, they should open the portals of the houses and give a whistle, when the strange Indians should rush in and take their long-meditated revenge.

Two squaws and a chief were kindly entertained by Major Waldron, and when all in the house had retired to sleep, the squaws opened the doors and gave the signal, when Indians rushed into the Major's apartment. Although almost fourscore years of age, the Major leaped from his bed, seized his sword, and applied it with so much vigor that he drove his assailants through two or three doors. As he was returning for other arms he was stunned by a blow from a hatchet, when he was seized, dragged into his hall, and, seating him in an armchair on a long table, they scornfully asked him, "Who shall judge Indian now?" Then they demanded food of the inmates of the house, and when they had feasted they tortured the veteran soldier to death.

New Hampshire engaged earnestly in the disputes with the British ministry before the kindling of the war for independence, and the people of that Province were the first to form an independent State government. A Pro-

vincial Congress had assembled at Exeter on May 7, 1775, when ninety-eight counties, towns, parishes and boroughs were represented by deputies. Matthew Thornton was chosen its President, and Eleazer Thompson, Secretary. They established a post-office at Portsmouth, provided for procuring arms, recommended the establishment of home manufactures, commissioned Brigadier-General Nathaniel Folsom first commander of the military of the Province, and provided for the issue of bills of credit, or paper money. They voted to raise three regiments, their troops then in camp before Boston to constitute two of them.

In accordance with the recommendation of the Continental Congress, the people of New Hampshire organized a State government on January 5, 1776. It was intended to be temporary—to last only through the war. A permanent State government was not established until June 4, 1784. Josiah Bartlett, the first signer of the Declaration of Independence, after President Hancock, was chosen the first Governor of the State under the National Constitution, 1792–1794.

The people of New Hampshire took an active part in the war for independence. They captured the fort at New Castle in December, 1774. Their men were engaged in many battles, from that on Bunker's Hill to that at Yorktown. Generals Stark, Poor and Sullivan were particularly distinguished military leaders. Their prowess was attested at Bennington, Bemis Heights, Saratoga, Monmouth, and Yorktown.

Preliminary movements toward the formation of a permanent State government were made in 1781, when, in June, a popular convention framed a State Constitution for the Commonwealth, which, after undergoing many alterations, became the fundamental law of the State, as we have observed, in June, 1784. The Constitution provided that once in seven years it should be presented to a vote of the people on proposed amendments. This was done in September, 1791, and the Constitution then adopted continues to be the supreme law of New Hampshire. A convention sitting in Concord, from November 6, 1850, to April 17, 1851, considered numerous amendments, but only one was adopted—removing the property qualifications of representatives.

After the National Constitution was framed at Philadelphia, in 1787, the Continental Congress provided by resolution that when nine of the thirteen States should ratify the great instrument, it should become the fundamental law of the Republic. New Hampshire has the honor of giving the vote that

decided the fate of that instrument. Everywhere there was vehement opposition to it, because it would limit "State supremacy," and merge the States into one consolidated sovereignty. New Hampshire was the *ninth* State that ratified the Constitution. It was done by a small majority on June 21, 1788.

Portsmouth was the seat of government while provincial authority ruled. The seat of the provincial government was at Exeter during the Revolution, and in 1805 Concord was made the State capital. New Hampshire is known by the sobriquet of "The Granite State."

In the four wars in which the Republic has been engaged—namely, the Revolutionary, the second war for independence (1812–1815), the war with Mexico, and the civil war—the Commonwealth of New Hampshire contributed freely in men and money. In its infancy it furnished 12,497 men to the Continental army; in its maturity, when the life of the Republic was in peril, it contributed for the national army 34,605 men, of whom 5508 perished in battle, and 11,039 were disabled by sickness and wounds.

The sterility of much of the soil of New Hampshire renders agriculture a rather unremunerative pursuit; but its grand and abundant water-power and other resources, have caused it to be a very heavy manufacturing State. Cotton, woollen and paper mills abound. In 1880 it employed 1,108,521 spindles and 25,487 looms in the manufacture of cotton fabrics. In this industry it ranks second among the States in the value of its products. Its iron and steel manufactures are of great value. In 1882 it had 1000 miles of railways, which cost \$25,370,787. The assessed valuation of real and personal property in the State was nearly \$201,000,000.

New Hampshire has a well-organized system of public instruction. In 1880 there were 64,670 children, from five to twenty-one years of age, enrolled in public schools, with an average daily attendance of 48,943. The expenditures for public schools that year were \$568,103. The State has one University—Dartmouth College, at Hanover. There are many normal schools and higher seminaries of learning for both sexes, among which Phillips' Academy, at Exeter, holds a front rank. The State has no large cities. Manchester, the largest, has a population of about 33,500. Concord, its capital, has over 14,000.

CONNECTICUT.

(1633.)



BOUNDED on three sides by the States of Massachusetts, New York and Rhode Island, and on the fourth by Long Island Sound and the Atlantic Ocean, lies the Commonwealth of Connecticut, between 41° and $42^{\circ} 3'$ north latitude, and $71^{\circ} 55'$ and $73^{\circ} 50'$ west longitude. It was one of the original thirteen States of the Union. Its domain embraces an area of 4,845 square miles. The population of Connecticut in 1880 was 622,700, of whom there were 11,931 colored persons, including 255 Indians.

A large portion of the State of Connecticut is rugged and mountainous. An extension of the Green Mountains of Vermont crosses the western part of the State, and stretches almost to Long Island Sound. In the eastern part there is a ridge supposed to be a prolongation of the White Mountain range in New Hampshire.

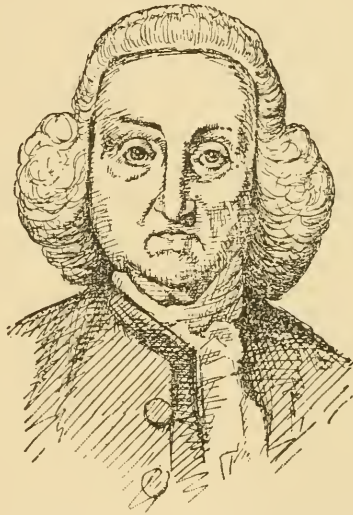
The principal river of the State is the Connecticut, which flows from the border of Canada, forms the dividing line between Vermont and New Hampshire, intersects Massachusetts and the Commonwealth to which it has given its name, into Long Island Sound. It is navigable to Hartford, the capital of the State. It flows through one of the most beautiful and picturesque regions of the earth.

When Adrian Block, a skillful Dutch navigator, left Manhattan in his new ship *Unrest*, which had been built to take the place of the burnt vessel *Tigress*, in the spring of 1614 (see *New York*), he sailed up the East river into Long Island Sound and out on the Atlantic. On his way he discovered the Connecticut river, which he called the *Versche* (or fresh) Water. He sailed up the stream to the site of Hartford for observation, and then pursued his voyage. The Indian name of the river in English orthography was Quon-eh-tah-cut, signifying "the long river."

The discovery of the Connecticut River by Block gave the Dutch a claim to the adjoining territory by the right of discovery, and so early as 1623 the

agent of the Dutch West India Company took formal possession of the Connecticut Valley, by proclamation, in the name of the States-general of Holland. The English made a counter-claim soon afterwards, based upon a patent issued by King James to English subjects.

The Dutch, with a keen eye to profit and to security against the barbarians on the eastern border of New Netherland, sent an embassy to New Plymouth (see *Massachusetts*) to persuade the Pilgrims to abandon Cape Cod Bay, and seat themselves, under jurisdiction of the Dutch, (whose language they had learned in Holland,) in the fertile Connecticut Valley. A Mohegan chief, with similar motives, joined in the request. The Pilgrims, jealous of



JONATHAN TRUMBULL, FIRST GOVERNOR OF CONNECTICUT.

their independence, declined; but, in 1632, Governor Edward Winslow visited the Connecticut Valley. His observation confirmed all the good things which had been said about the region, and he resolved to promote emigration thither.

The fame of the fertile valley had already reached Old England. Two years before Winslow's visit, Charles I. had granted a patent to the soil of that region to some English noblemen, and defined the territory as extending westward from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean—the latter then known as "the South Sea."

The Dutch now possessed a more rightful title to the country than that of discovery. They had purchased the valley from the Indians, built a redoubt just below the site of Hartford, called Fort Good Hope, in 1633, took

possession of it, and "set up a home with intent to plant." This was the first seed that germinated in the colony of Connecticut.

The Plymouth people, though aware of the preparations made by the Dutch for defence, did not hesitate. In October, 1633, Captain William Holmes and a small company arrived in the Connecticut River in a sloop bearing the frame of a house. He had a commission from Governor Winslow to make a settlement. Though warned by the commander of the fort to desist, Holmes sailed by unmolested, landed at the site of Windsor, and there erected his house. The Dutch sent a force the next year to drive the English from the valley. A parley ensued, which resulted in peaceful relations, when the Dutch withdrew from that region. In 1635-36 the first permanent settlement in the Connecticut Valley was made at Hartford, by emigrants from Massachusetts.

In the autumn of 1635 a company of men, women and children from Massachusetts, with oxen and cows, traversed the rugged wilderness for fully one hundred miles, until they reached the valley of the Connecticut, then white with snow. Ice prevented a vessel, laden with supplies for them, ascending the stream. They built log huts on the sites of Weathersfield and Hartford, and a little church at the latter place. Starvation soon menaced them, and some of the colony made their way to the shore of the Sound, and sailed thence to Boston in a passing vessel. Those who remained suffered dreadfully, living for a while upon acorns. Many of the cattle died for want of food.

In 1636 the Rev. Thomas Hooker, who came to Boston from Holland, led a company of men, women and children into the beautiful valley. He wisely chose the Summer time for the migration. They had 160 head of cattle. The cows pastured on grassy savannas, and furnished much wholesome food for the wanderers. The company stood on the banks of the beautiful Connecticut on the 4th of July, and there, under the shadow of great trees, they sang hymns of praise and thanksgiving, and on the following Sabbath, Mr. Hooker preached a sermon and administered the Communion in the little church built the previous winter.

In 1636 John Winthrop, son of the Governor of Massachusetts, came from England as Governor of the Connecticut colony. He built a fort and planted a settlement at the mouth of the river. The colony grew and flourished. A constitution for its government was framed, and was approved by a vote of the people on January 14, 1639. It was the first example in history of a

written constitution organizing a government and defining its powers. Its leading features have been incorporated into the constitutions of all the States of the Republic.

Meanwhile the existence of the colony had been menaced by the powerful Pequod Indians, whose territory extended from Narragansett Bay to the Hudson River and over Long Island. Sassacus, then Emperor, ruled over twenty-six native princes. Fearing increase in the number and power of the English, he resolved to exterminate them. Massachusetts sent troops to assist their brethren. They were joined by the Mohegans, attacked the Pequods in their rear, and defeated and dispersed them. Sassacus and his followers fled westward, dreadfully smitten by their pursuers, and that powerful nation was almost annihilated in a day, as it were. This blow gave peace to New England for more than forty years. The last of the pure-blooded Pequods—Eunice Maurvee—died at Kent, Connecticut, in 1860, at the age of 100 years.

After the destruction of the Pequods there was a strong desire among the people of Massachusetts to settle in Connecticut. They had heard from the pursuers of the fugitive Indians of the beauty and fertility of the country stretching along Long Island Sound; and in the autumn of 1637 a small party of observation encamped on the site of New Haven, where they built a hut and wintered. In the spring of 1638 the Rev. John Davenport and others went by water to the spot where the exploring party had wintered, at the mouth of a small stream that entered a beautiful bay. They were charmed with the locality and named it New Haven. On the Sabbath Mr. Davenport preached a sermon under a wide-spreading oak. They purchased lands of the Indians; framed articles of association, which they called a "Plantation Covenant," formed in accordance with the Holy Scriptures, and began an independent settlement without reference to any government or country on the earth.

The little community at New Haven meditated and prayed for light concerning the best political organization for the government of the colony, which was growing by accretion. At length, in the summer of 1639, when it was found that they were "nearly of one mind," they assembled in a barn to frame a constitution of government "according to the word of God." After Mr. Davenport had prayed and preached, he proposed for their adoption four fundamental articles, namely—(1.) That the Scriptures contain a perfect rule for the government of men, in the family, in the church, and in the commonwealth; (2.) That they would be ordered by the rules which the Scriptures

hold forth; (3.) That their purpose was to be admitted into church-fellowship according to Christ, as soon as God should fit them thereto; and (4.) That they hold themselves bound to establish such civil order, according to God, as would be likely to secure the greatest good to themselves and their posterity.

By unanimous vote these articles were adopted, when they proceeded to form a plan of government. It was arranged that church membership and freemanship should qualify a man to exercise the political franchise, to choose magistrates, and transact civil business of every kind; that twelve fit men should be chosen from the company, who should choose seven of their number as the seven pillars of the Church. This was done, and the seven "pillars" organized a Church. Their assistants, nine in number, were regarded as "free burgesses," and the sixteen chose Theophilus Eaton, one of the explorers in 1687, magistrate for one year. Four other persons were chosen deputies, and these constituted the Executive and Legislative departments of the government. It was a sort of theocracy. They built a meeting-house, ordained that no person should settle among them without the consent of the community, and in 1640 they called the settlement New Haven. The colony flourished alone until 1662, when it was annexed by royal charter to the colony in the valley.

When monarchy was restored in England, in 1660, in the person of Charles II., son of the decapitated King, the people of the Connecticut Valley hastened to avow their allegiance and to secure a new charter. One was secured in 1662, which embraced both the Connecticut and New Haven colonies, but the union was not perfected until 1665. It gave to the people jurisdiction over the whole land within its limits; provided for the election of a Governor, deputy-governor, twelve assistants or magistrates, and ten deputies from each town. This constitution was so acceptable to the people of Connecticut that it remained their fundamental law until 1818, when the present Constitution was framed.

The union of the two colonies in Connecticut, as we have observed, was perfected in 1665. Prominent citizens of the New Haven colony were much disturbed by this summary blotting out of their Commonwealth. It had been foredoomed. Its intense Puritanism, and its dilatoriness in recognizing the authority of Charles II., had made it obnoxious to the Crown. That it had given shelter to the regicides was a serious count against it. Mr. Davenport, its real founder, was specially grieved at the unexpected turn of affairs. He accepted an invitation to return to Boston, and died there two years after-

ward. The government of the united colonies was, at first, a pure democracy but in 1670 it became a representative one.

After the Duke of York took possession of New Netherlands (see *New York*), in 1664, commissioners were sent to look after affairs there and in New England. They came to secure allegiance to the Crown. The charter of Connecticut secured it, and there was no trouble in that colony; but Sir Edmund Andros, who had been appointed Governor-General of New England in 1686, demanded the surrender of all the colonial charters under his jurisdiction. Connecticut, alone, resisted. The Viceroy proceeded to Hartford in the autumn of 1687, with an armed force, to seize the charter and extinguish the government. The people had long expected this movement, and leading men had made preparations to meet it. So early as the middle of June preceding, the Assembly directed the charter to be brought into the Chamber in the mahogany box in which it had been sent from England. It was laid on the table, and the secretary was directed to leave it there, with the key in it. This order was intended to give an opportunity for somebody to make a copy of the charter, which was done neatly on parchment—of course without the official sanction of the Assembly.

Andros arrived at Hartford, with sixty soldiers, late in October. The Assembly was in session in the meeting-house, where he was courteously received at about sunset. He demanded the surrender of the charter. A debate in progress was intentionally prolonged until the candles were lighted, when the box containing the charter, was brought in and placed on the table. When Andros put forth his hand to take the instrument the lights were extinguished and the box was carried away by Captain Joseph Wadsworth, commander of train-bands who were near. It did not contain the original charter. That, Wadsworth had made a duplicate of, and concealed the original in a hollow oak tree. That duplicate was in the box. After the accession of William and Mary, in 1689, and Andros had been expelled from America, the original was taken from the oak and the colonial government resumed its functions under it. The "Charter Oak" survived until August, 1856, when it was prostrated by a gale.

In 1676 the General Court, or Legislature, of Connecticut was first divided into two Houses. The Governor and assistants composed the upper House, and the deputies regularly returned from the towns were called the lower House. The Governor presided in the upper House. All laws became so only by the mutual consent of the two Houses.

There were two sessions of the General Court of Connecticut each year; and from 1701 until 1875, these, and the annual sessions which succeeded them, were held alternately at Hartford and New Haven. Since the latter year Hartford has been the sole capital of the State

In the earlier colonial times many of the laws enacted by the authorities of Connecticut were very rigid. They contained enactments against every great vice, as well as for social regulations, and revealed the sternness of Puritan character and morals. They were first published in collected form in 1650, and were issued in blue paper covers. Copies found their way to England, when, on account of the color of the covers, they were first called "Blue Laws." After the restoration the word "blue" was applied to rigid moralists of every kind, especially to the Presbyterians. Hudibras says—

"For his religion it was writ
To match his learning and his wit—
'Twas Presbyterian true *blue*."

To ridicule the Puritans of New England, a series of pretended enactments, very ridiculous, purporting to be extracts from the Blue Laws, were promulgated and gained general belief.

During the colonial wars Connecticut furnished its full share of men and money in support of the cause of the English-American colonists; and in the bitter disputation between the colonists and the British ministry, in the years preceding the old war for independence, her leading men and women took a very active part. Opposition to the Stamp Act ran high in that province; and so menacing were the actions of the people that the appointed stamp-distributor relinquished the office, saying "the cause is not worth dying for."

The Connecticut charter made its western boundary nominally the Pacific Ocean. Prior occupancy by the Dutch had made an exception in favor of New York and New Jersey; but all territory west of the Delaware River within the parallels of Connecticut was claimed by that colony. An association called the "Susquehanna Company" was formed, with the sanction of the Legislature, in 1753, for the purpose of planting a settlement beyond the Delaware. It included the beautiful Valley of Wyoming, into which many families from Connecticut emigrated. In 1763 the settlement was broken up by hostile Indians, and the settlers made their way back to Connecticut. Pennsylvania took possession of the Wyoming Valley, and built a fortified trading house there. In 1769 forty members of the Susquehanna Company

went there to assert their rights. Civil war ensued. The Connecticut Assembly submitted the case to the ablest lawyers in England, and a decision was made in favor of the company. It was unheeded by the Governor of Pennsylvania, and civil war again began. It was soon ended by the more important events of the war for independence.

The people of Connecticut were active participants in the war for independence from the beginning. Their Governor, Jonathan Trumbull, was the only colonial Governor who espoused their cause. He was considered the Whig leader in New England in the absence, in Congress, of the Adamses and Hancock. The Assembly instructed its delegates in the Continental Congress to vote for independence, a permanent union of the colonies and a foreign alliance. Jonathan Trumbull was the first Governor of the State of Connecticut.

During the war of the Revolution the towns of Connecticut suffered dreadfully from marauding parties. Danbury, in the interior, was burnt and plundered in 1777; and in 1779, 2000 British and German marauders scourged its coast towns. On the 5th of July they plundered New Haven; and East Haven in ashes on the 6th; destroyed Fairfield on the 8th, and plundered and burnt Norwalk on the 12th. In 1781 Arnold, the traitor, in the employ of his British master, at the head of Tories and Hessians, destroyed New London, on the Thames.

Like those of the other New England States, the people of Connecticut were opposed to the war of 1812, and lent its aid rather unwillingly in support of the government against the British. Its coasts suffered from the operations of blockading squadrons and amphibious depredators. On April 8, 1814, six boats with 200 men from the British blockading squadron entered the Connecticut River, ascended it several miles, and destroyed full twenty vessels which had collected there as a place of supposed safety. Because of the lukewarmness of the people, the National Government neglected to give them proper protection on the coast. This neglect formed one of the grounds for serious complaint by the Hartford Convention.

The Hartford Convention in 1814 holds a conspicuous place in the history of our country. The Legislature of Massachusetts addressed a circular letter to the governors of the New England States, inviting the appointment of delegates to meet in convention at an early day to deliberate upon "means of security and defense" against dangers to which these States were exposed by the course of the war. It was also proposed to consider amendments to

the National Constitution on the subject of slave representation. The proposition was acceded to, and Hartford, in Connecticut, was the place chosen for holding the convention.

December 15, 1814, was the time appointed for the assembling of the convention. On that day twenty-six delegates, representing the five New England States, met, and appointed George Cabot, of Boston, President, and Theodore Dwight, secretary. They were all notable men. The sessions were held with closed doors and continued three weeks. The government at Washington was alarmed by this secret gathering of representative New England men, and especially by the appropriation at about that time by the Massachusetts Legislature of \$1,000,000 for the support of 10,000 men to relieve the militia in service, and to be, like them, under the State's control. All sorts of wild rumors suggesting treason were set afloat; and the government sent Major Jesup and a regiment of soldiers to Hartford at the time of the opening of the convention, ostensibly to recruit for the regular army, but really to watch the supposed unpatriotic movement.

The attention of the convention was called to a wide range of topics—the powers of the National Executive in calling out the militia; the dividing of the United States into military districts, with an officer of the army in each with discretionary power to call out the militia; the refusal of the Executive to pay the militia of certain of the States called on for their own defense; the failure of the government to pay the militia admitted to the United States service; the proposition for a conscription; a bill then before Congress for classifying and drafting the militia; the invasion of neighboring territory, and the failure of the National Government to provide for the common defense.

It was agreed that it was expedient for the convention to prepare a general statement of the unconstitutional attempt of the United States government to infringe upon the rights of individual States in regard to the military; also a statement concerning the general subject of state defenses, etc. They also proposed amendments to the Constitution to accomplish the restriction of the power of Congress to declare and make war, lay embargoes, admit new States, and alterations concerning slave representation and taxation.

These were all legitimate subjects for discussion by patriotic men. The labors of the convention ended on January 4, 1815, and on the next day it adjourned, but with an impression that circumstances might call for a re-assembling of that body. For that reason the seal of secrecy on their pro-

ceedings was not removed. This gave wide scope for conjecture, suspicion and misrepresentations; and for many years, in the realm of politics, the term "Hartford Convention Federalist" conveyed much reproach.

Connecticut took an active and patriotic part in the late Civil War. Her chief magistrate, William A. Buckingham, was one of the most energetic "war governors" of the time. It furnished the National army with 54,882 thoroughly equipped men, of whom 1094 men and ninety-seven officers were killed in action: 666 men and forty-eight officers died from wounds, and 3246 men and sixty-three officers died from disease.

Connecticut is essentially a manufacturing State, and exceeds any other in the variety of its industries. It has about 1000 miles of railways in operation. The State is thoroughly equipped for dispensing the blessings of education to all classes of its population. It has nearly 1700 district schools, with a school population of 139,000, of whom nearly 120,000 are enrolled in the public schools. It has high schools in all its cities; and its expenditure for public schools in 1885 was \$1,376,000. There is a State normal school, many collegiate schools, and seminaries for both sexes, and three universities or colleges, all well endowed. Yale College, at New Haven, is one of the oldest of the higher institutions of learning in the Republic.

Several nicknames have been applied to Connecticut—the "Free-stone State," the "Nutmeg State," the "Land of Steady Habits." Morality, shrewdness, patriotism, independence, and self-reliance are characteristics which have been attributed to the people of Connecticut. Halleck, one of its sons, wrote more than half a century ago:

"They love their land because it is their own,
And scorn to give aught other reason why;
Would shake hands with a king upon his throne,
And think it kindness to his majesty—
A stubborn race, fearing and flattering none.
Such are they nurtured, such they live and die:
All—but a few apostates, who are meddling
With merchandize, pounds, shillings, pence and peddling,

"Or wandering through the southern countries teaching
The A, B, C from Webster's spelling-book;
Gallant and godly, making love and preaching,
And gaining, by what they call 'hook and crook.
And what the moralists call 'overreaching,'
A decent living. The Virginians look
Upon them with as favorable eyes
As Gabriel on the devil in Paradise."

MARYLAND.

(1634.)



MARYLAND is one of the Central Atlantic States, and an original member of the Union. Pennsylvania on the north, the State of Delaware and the Atlantic Ocean on the east, on the south, south-west and west, Virginia and West Virginia, and on the north-west West Virginia form its boundaries. It lies between $37^{\circ} 53'$ and $39^{\circ} 44'$ north latitude, and $75^{\circ} 2'$ and $79^{\circ} 30'$ west longitude, and embraces 12,210 square miles of territory. In the census of 1880 Maryland ranked twenty-three among the States in population, the number being 934,943, of whom 210,250 were colored.

Maryland is unequally divided by Chesapeake Bay. Its eastern portion, lying between the Chesapeake and Delaware bays and the Atlantic, is mostly level, and portions of it swampy. The western portion, lying between the Chesapeake and the Potomac River, which separates it from the Virginias, is for the most part level as far north as Washington City. Above that point the country rises in terraces, and soon assumes the form of rugged hills and quite lofty mountains with fertile vallies. The Blue Ridge, and other ranges of the Alleghanies, pass through the north-west portion of the State. One mountain peak rises to an altitude of 2500 feet above tide-water.

The first European dweller in Maryland was William Clayborne, who was one of the early settlers in Virginia. The Governor of Virginia gave him authority, in 1627, to explore the head of Chesapeake Bay; and in 1631 King Charles granted him a license to make discoveries and to trade with the Indians in that region. Under this authority he established a trading post on Kent Island, in Chesapeake Bay, not far from the site of (present) Annapolis. That was in 1631.

Earlier than this, George Calvert, an English Roman Catholic, knighted by James I. in 1617, and made an Irish peer, in 1624, with the title of Baron of Baltimore, had obtained from his sovereign (1622) a patent to plant a

Roman Catholic colony in America. Failing in some of his projects, he applied for a charter for the domain between North and South Virginia. (See *Virginia*.) Before it was completed Lord Baltimore died. The King, also, was dead, but his son, Charles, granted to Calvert's son and successor, Cecil (June 20, 1632), a patent for that region. In honor of Henrietta Maria, or Mary, the queen of Charles I., the name of Mary's Land was given to the domain.

The Government of the province was made independent of the Crown—strictly proprietary; and equality in civil and religious freedom was secured to every Christian sect except Unitarians.

Lord Baltimore appointed his half-brother, Leonard Calvert, Governor



THOMAS JOHNSTON, FIRST GOVERNOR OF MARYLAND.

of his American domain. That kinsman, with another brother, sailed from Cowes, Isle of Wight, on November 22, 1633, with "very near twenty other gentlemen of very good fashion," wrote Lord Baltimore to a friend, and "three hundred laboring men," accompanied by two Jesuit priests. The Calverts and the other "gentlemen," and some of the laboring men, were Roman Catholics, but a greater portion of the latter were Protestants. They encountered a terrific storm. The two vessels—the *Ark* and the *Dove*—were separated by the tempest, but met at Barbadoes, and finally entered the mouth of the Potomac River together in February, 1634.

The emigrants sailed up the Potomac a short distance and landed upon an island which they named St. Clements, and were there visited by some of

the natives. Thence the Governor made some explorations, and finally entered into a treaty with the barbarians for the purchase of a little territory at a pleasant spot near where the Potomac entered Chesapeake Bay. With imposing religious ceremonies by the priests, in the presence of Indians, it was dedicated to the Virgin Mary, and the spot where they settled was named St. Mary. A year later they established the capital of the colony there; and there the Legislative Assembly, composed of the whole adult male population, met. As population increased by immigration, a representative government was established, the people being allowed to send as many delegates as they pleased. Thus was planted the germs of the Commonwealth of Maryland.

When Lord Baltimore claimed jurisdiction over Kent and other islands in Chesapeake Bay, Clayborne, the early settler, refused to acknowledge his title, he having, as he said, an earlier one from the King. Baltimore ordered his arrest, and sent two vessels with armed men for the purpose. Clayborne had a vessel filled with armed retainers. A battle ensued; the assailants were repulsed and one of them was killed. Clayborne was indicted for and found guilty of murder and other high crimes. He fled to Virginia. The Governor of Virginia refused to give him up. Kent Island was seized and confiscated by the Maryland authorities. The King severely reprimanded Baltimore for violating royal commands in driving Clayborne from his rightful possessions. The Lords Commissioners of Plantations decided in favor of Baltimore, but Clayborne afterwards stirred up the people to rebellion.

The first statutes of Maryland were enacted in 1637. Three years later a company of Puritans, who had been driven out of Virginia, settled in Maryland, and soon showed a spirit of resistance to the authorities. Clayborne now reappeared at Kent Island, and stirred up the Indians against the white settlers and kindled a civil war among the people. The insurgents, with the disaffected Indians, drove the Governor and his Council into Virginia, and the rebels held the reins of power for a year and a half. The rebellion was crushed in the summer of 1647, when the Governor returned. The Puritans in Maryland called their chief settlement (on the site of Annapolis) Providence.

Governor Calvert died in 1647, and on the death of the King, in 1649, Lord Baltimore, professing to be a Protestant, appointed William Stone, a warm friend of Parliament, Governor; but the Parliament, doubting Baltimore's sincerity, removed Stone, and appointed commissioners (of whom

Clayborne was one) to rule Maryland. They put Kent and Palmer islands in the possession of Clayborne. On the dissolution of the Long Parliament, Cromwell restored the proprietary rights of Lord Baltimore, and for some time civil and religious disputes ran high in the province. The Puritans, being in the majority, disfranchised Roman Catholics and members of the Church of England, and persecuted Quakers. A distressing civil war ensued. In a sharp battle near Providence, the troops of the Governor, who were mostly Roman Catholics, were defeated, and many were killed or made prisoners. Four were executed on a charge of treason. Anarchy ensued, but under the rule of judicious Governor Josiah Fendal, comparative quiet reigned until 1660, when the people, boldly asserting popular liberty, assumed the exercise of the legislative powers of the colony, and gave Fendal the commission of Governor.

On the restoration of monarchy in England (1660), the King reinstated Lord Baltimore in all his rights, when the latter proclaimed a general pardon of all political offenders. For thirty years afterwards Maryland enjoyed repose, prospered, and rapidly increased in population and wealth.

Lord Baltimore (the third) died in 1675, and was succeeded by his son Charles. He and his successors continued to administer the Government of the province, with some interruption, until the period of the old war for independence.

The revolution in England in 1688 shook the province to its foundations. The deputy governor hesitated to proclaim William and Mary, when a restless spirit named Coode, making this hesitation a pretext, excited the people by giving wings to a story that the civil magistrates and the Roman Catholics were about to join the Indians in the extermination of the Protestants. Immediately the old religious feud, which had been smouldering, burst into an intense flame. The Protestants, armed and led by Coode, marched upon the capital of the province, took forcible possession of it (September, 1689), and assumed the administration of the Government. They called a popular Convention and invested it with legislative functions; and by that body Maryland was governed until June, 1691, when the British sovereign, ignoring the rights of Lord Baltimore, made Maryland a royal province and appointed a Governor. In 1694 the capital was transferred from St. Mary to Providence, which a few years afterward received the name of Annapolis, in honor of Queen Anne. It has remained the political capital of the Commonwealth ever since.

In 1716 the proprietary rights of the then late Lord Baltimore were restored to his infant son and heir, and the original form of Government was reestablished and so remained until the Revolution in 1775.

During the bitter controversy between the British-American colonies and Great Britain before the war for independence, the people of Maryland were very patriotic, but, at the same time, were conservative. They expressed in strong terms their sympathy with patriotic movements in the other colonies, especially with the people of Boston, on account of their sufferings inflicted because of the destruction of tea in their harbor late in 1773. On the morning of October 15, 1774, a ship entered the harbor of Annapolis with seventeen packages of tea on board. The people were greatly excited, and prepared to burn the vessel and her cargo. Her owner, Anthony Stewart, declared that he had no intention to violate any non-importation agreement. The people would not listen, and Charles Carroll advised Stewart to burn the vessel with his own hands, and so quiet the public disturbance. It was done, when the multitude, who had gathered from the surrounding country, cheered and dispersed.

The people of Maryland were ably represented in the Continental Congress from the beginning. They adopted the American Association, or general non-importation agreement, recommended by the Congress of 1774. On July 26, 1775, a Convention assembled at Annapolis, and formed a temporary Government, which, recognizing the Continental Congress as invested with a general supervision of public affairs, managed its own internal affairs through a provincial Committee of Safety, and subordinate committees appointed in every county, parish or hundred. It directed an enrolment of forty companies of minute-men, and authorized the emission of bills of credit to the amount of over \$500,000. The Convention resolved to sustain Massachusetts, and meet force by force if necessary.

During the French and Indian war Maryland had borne its full share of the burden imposed by it, and Annapolis was the scene of a Convention of colonial governors, in the spring of 1755, to consult with General Braddock about the campaign for that year. In the war for independence her powerful influence was felt in the council and in the field at all times. She hastened to comply with the recommendation of the Continental Congress to form an independent State Government. On August 14, 1776, a State Constitution was adopted, and Thomas Johnson, who nominated Washington as Commander-in-chief of the Continental forces, was elected the first Governor of

the independent Commonwealth on February 13, 1777. At Annapolis, at the close of the great struggle, Washington resigned his military commission to Congress, then in session there, in December, 1783.

The State Constitution was ratified by the people in November, 1776, and the first State Legislature assembled at Annapolis on February 5, 1777. The Constitution was amended in 1802, and again in 1836; and in 1851 almost an entirely new one was adopted. During the war the "Maryland Line" of troops won a high reputation. The people of the State, by a handsome majority, ratified the National Constitution in April, 1788.

During the second war for independence (1812-15) the coasts of Maryland suffered greatly from the operation of British marauders under Admiral Cockburn, and the State suffered a serious invasion by the British in the summer of 1814. They swept across the State from the shores of Chesapeake Bay toward the National Capital, and at Bladensburg, four miles from Washington city, a severe battle was fought. The Americans were defeated. The invaders pressed on to the Capital and burned the public buildings and other property in August. A British force landed at North Point in September, pushed on toward Baltimore, and were defeated and driven to their ships; and after an unsuccessful attack on Fort McHenry at Baltimore they were repulsed.

Maryland, as a slave-labor State, and ranking among the border States in relation to that system, was greatly agitated concerning secession from the Union. The opposing parties, for and against secession, were very strong and earnest. A capital plan of the leaders in the secession movement was the seizure of the National Government, its buildings, its archives and its treasury; and it was important to secure Maryland as an accomplice in the movement. The District of Columbia, the seat of the National Government, had once been a part of the territory of Maryland. Emissaries from the cotton-growing States were early within its borders plying their seductive arts. In Baltimore they found numerous and powerful sympathisers. But the Governor, Thomas H. Hicks, was a sturdy opponent of their schemes.

It is said that on the 1st of January, 1861, there were no less than 12,000 men in Maryland pledged to follow their leaders in seizing Washington city. The Governor found himself powerfully supported by an eminently loyal people among the so-called "masses"—the "common people." The Secessionists urged him to call a session of the Legislature. Perceiving the danger to be apprehended from the action of a body largely made up of slaveholders.

the Governor refused. He had been informed that the members of the Legislature had already perfected a plan for "carrying Maryland out of the Union." This and cognate facts Governor Hicks set forth in an address to the people of the State (January 6, 1861). Henry Winter Davis, a most zealous Union man, had just published a powerful appeal against the assembling of the Legislature or a Border State Convention.

The Secessionists denounced Governor Hicks as a traitor, but he was sustained by a majority of the people. A strong Union party was organized. Maryland became a great battle-field of opposing opinion, and it also became the theatre of struggles between hostile armies. The battles of South Mountain, Antietam and Monocacy were fought on its soil, and it suffered much from the invasion of Confederate marauding parties.

The Union men of Maryland triumphed. In the space of four years from the breaking out of the Civil War, Slavery was abolished from its borders, not only by the President's proclamation, but by the constitutional act of its own authorities. In October, 1864, a new Constitution was ratified by the people. It abolished Slavery, and disfranchised all who had aided or encouraged rebellion against the National Government. The authorities of the State furnished to the National army during the war 49,730 men.

Maryland is becoming a considerable manufacturing State. In 1880 it had 6787 manufacturing establishments, employing 74,945 workmen, with \$58,743,384 capital invested, and aggregate products valued at \$106,780,563. It had over 1000 miles of railways in operation within its borders, and the Chesapeake and Ohio canal traverses the State from the District of Columbia to Cumberland. Baltimore is its only great city, and contained a population, in 1880, of 332,313.

Maryland had in 1880 enrolled in its public schools 162,431 pupils, with an average daily attendance of 85,449. It expended that year for public schools \$1,395,284. The State contained nine universities or colleges, six of which belong to the Roman Catholics.



RHODE ISLAND.

(1636.)



RHODE ISLAND, the smallest of the thirty-eight Commonwealths which comprise the Republic of the United States of America, was one of the original States of the Union. Its history, in detail, is very interesting. The Atlantic Ocean washes its entire southern border; Massachusetts lies on its northern and eastern borders, and Connecticut bounds its western limits. It lies between $41^{\circ} 18'$ and $42^{\circ} 3'$ north latitude, and $71^{\circ} 8'$ and $71^{\circ} 53'$ west longitude, and embraces an area of 1250 square miles. The population of Rhode Island in 1880 was 276,531, of which 6,592 were colored.

The State of Rhode Island is divided into two unequal parts by Narragansett Bay, which penetrates the land to Providence, about thirty miles from the sea. Its topography is diversified, a part of the country being hilly and other portions level and sandy or marshy. The great Bay is thickly studded with picturesque islands, and its shores are clustered with historic associations. The island of Rhode Island is mostly elevated ground, and the climate is most salubrious. Its southern portion is a famous summer resort. Its name is an English corruption of the Dutch "Roodt Eylandt"—Red Island. They so called it because of the red cranberry marshes which they saw on the shores of Narragansett Bay. The Indians called it Aquiday, or Aquitneck.

It is conceded to be a fact of history that Scandinavian navigators visited the shores of America in the 10th and 11th centuries, and it is believed that Rhode Island was a part of the country visited by them and called "Vineland" (see *Massachusetts*). An ancient round stone tower at Newport has elicited much investigation and disputation, some supposing it to have been erected by the Northmen, and others that it was built for a windmill by the early English settlers on the island. It stands upon seven stone pillars. The masonry of the structure is admirable.

It is claimed that Verrazani, an Italian in the French service, visited and

explored Narragansett Bay in 1524, and had intercourse with the natives there, whom he found very numerous. The Dutch trapped on the shores of the great Bay some time before any English settlers were seated there. At that time Canonicus, King of the Narragansetts, ruled the domain, and treated with the Pilgrims at New Plymouth.

Roger Williams, an eminent English divine and scholar, became the founder of the Commonwealth of Rhode Island. He came to Boston in 1630, with his wife, Mary, a sweet young English woman, who was a willing sharer in his joys and sorrows. He soon became obnoxious to ultra-Puritans at Boston, particularly to the bigoted clergy, because of his liberal views concerning



ROGER WILLIAMS, PROMINENT IN THE HISTORY OF RHODE ISLAND.

the freedom of conscience in religious and political affairs. He had taken orders in the Church of England, but, wayward in all things, he left that communion, became an extreme Puritan, and adopted the independent habits of "Seekers." He was a thorough separatist, and because his brethren in Massachusetts were not as radical as he, he assailed their theocracy. He became obnoxious to the authorities in Church and State at Boston, and went to Salem. He soon made enemies there, and went to Plymouth, where he became acquainted with chiefs of the barbarians and learned their language. Returning to Salem, he there promulgated his theological views so boldly, that in the autumn of 1635 the General Court of Massachusetts ordered him to quit the colony in six months. Observing with alarm that his doctrines were spreading, it was soon determined to seize him and send him to England.

Forewarned, Williams left his home and family at midwinter, and for fourteen weeks he wandered in the snows and dreariness of the region of Narragansett Bay, where five companions joined him on the eastern bank of Seekonk River. They went down the stream to the head of Narragansett Bay, and at a fine spring they planted the seed of a colony, and called the place "Providence." A democratic form of government was established, which allowed no interference with the liberty of conscience—"Soul liberty." Several other persons from Massachusetts joined them.

When Williams came to Boston he was inclined to become an Anabaptist. Now, believing baptism by immersion to be the only scriptural way, he proceeded to establish a Baptist Church. In March, 1639, he was so baptized by a layman, when he proceeded to immerse eleven others. So was established the first Baptist Church in America. But Williams, a "seeker" after truth, soon doubting the validity of his own baptism and that of the others, withdrew from the Church and never re-entered it.

For several years the Government of the colony was a pure democracy, transacting its business by means of town meetings, until a charter was obtained in 1644. From the beginning every settler was required to sign an agreement to give active or passive obedience to all ordinances that should be made by a majority of the inhabitants—heads of families—for the public good.

In the year 1638 William Coddington and others, driven from Massachusetts by persecution, bought of the Indians Aquiday, or Aquitneck (now Rhode Island), and made settlements on the sites of Newport and Portsmouth. A third settlement was formed at Warwick, on the main land, in 1643, by a party of whom John Greene and Samuel Gorton were leaders. The same year Williams went to England to procure a charter for the colony, and brought one back with him in 1644. It united the settlements at Providence and on Rhode Island under one Government, called "the Rhode Island and Providence Plantations."

So the Commonwealth of Rhode Island was established, but the Government did not go into operation until 1647, when the first General Assembly, composed of the collective freemen of the several plantations, met at Portsmouth (May 19), and framed and adopted a code of laws for the administration of Government. The legislative power was vested in a Court of Commissioners, consisting of six persons chosen by each of the four towns—Providence, Newport, Warwick and Portsmouth. Cromwell confirmed this

royal charter in 1655, and a new one was obtained from Charles II. in 1663, under which the Commonwealth of Rhode Island was governed 180 years.

In the fall of 1654 Williams was chosen Governor of Rhode Island. At that time the people were less tolerant than formerly, and they became incensed against fanatical persons who came among them calling themselves Friends or Quakers. Williams refused to persecute them, but when George Fox, an educated man and founder of that sect, visited Rhode Island and preached there, in 1672, Williams engaged in a public debate with him and two others at Newport.

When King Philip's war broke out, in 1675, the founder of Rhode Island watched the progress of the tempest with great anxiety. Although he was then seventy-six years of age, he accepted a Captain's commission, drilled a company at Providence, and erected defenses there for women and children. But the colony suffered greatly at the hands of the barbarians. They burned Providence and Warwick. On the soil of Rhode Island, near Kingston, the decisive battle that ended the war was fought.

When Sir Edmund Andros, Viceroy of New England, began his tyrannical career, he seized the charter of Rhode Island (see *Connecticut*). It was restored after the accession to the throne of William and Mary in 1689, and the people re-adopted the seal of the province—an anchor for a device, and Hope for a motto.

Rhode Island was too liberal and tolerant for the other New England colonies, and when the New England Confederacy was formed in 1643 Rhode Island was excluded. Yet it was always ready and helpful in defending those colonies against barbaric foes; and from the beginning of King William's war its history is identified with that of New England. It took an active part in the struggles of Great Britain and France for supreme dominion in America. It furnished many troops and seamen. In 1756 the colony had fifty privateersmen at sea, manned by 1500 seamen. They cruised along the American shores and in the West Indies.

The people of Rhode Island were equally conspicuous for their patriotism and zeal during the long disputes with the mother country preceding the old war for independence, and they bore their full share of the burden and the honors of that war. The first Commander-in-chief of the Continental navy was Esek Hopkins, a native of Rhode Island; and William Whipple was one of the boldest of her naval commanders.

One of the most daring events of the Revolution, in Rhode Island, was

the seizing and carrying away of General Prescott, a British General, by Colonel Barton and a whaleboat's crew, on a warm summer night, and depositing him at Washington's headquarters at New Windsor, on the Hudson River. In the summer of 1778 there was a battle on Quaker Hill, towards the north end of the island, when the British were pushed back, but the Americans withdrew to the main land.

When the several colonies were forming State governments in 1776-80, Rhode Island went forward under its royal charter, without framing a State Constitution. It had been under British rule a greater portion of the period of the war. British and Hessian troops took possession of it in December, 1776, borne there by a squadron under Admiral Parker. They occupied the island until near the close of 1779. In 1780 a French army, under the Count de Rochambeau, landed at Newport. They came as allies of the Americans in their struggle for freedom and independence. After the war Newport contended successfully with New York and Boston for commercial supremacy.

The idea of State supremacy had taken such hold of the public mind in Rhode Island, that a majority of the people were opposed to the National Constitution framed in 1787, and that State was the last to ratify it. It remained out of the Union until May 29, 1790, when it yielded and took its place in the Republic.

Rhode Island furnished many brave and skilled seamen during the war of 1812-15. Commodore Oliver Hazard Perry, who won a decisive victory on Lake Erie in September, 1813, was from Rhode Island. So, also, were many of his officers and men.

Efforts were repeatedly made for several years to replace the old royal charter for a State Constitution, but failed. Under the charter the right to vote was limited to men who possessed a small amount of real estate, and to the eldest sons. Attempts to obtain reforms by the action of the Legislature having failed, "Suffrage Associations" were formed in different parts of the State in the winter of 1840 and 1841. They met in mass Convention at Providence in July following, and authorized their State Committee to call a convention to frame a Constitution. The Convention assembled on the 4th of October and framed such an instrument. It was submitted to the people late in December, when it was claimed that a vote equal to a majority of the adult male population of the State had been given in its favor.

Under the State Constitution, State officers were chosen, April 18, 1842,

with Thomas W. Dorr, a distinguished lawyer, as Governor; and on May 3 they attempted to organize the new Government at Providence. The so-called "Legal Government," chosen under the charter, resisted the movement. That party was led by Governor King, the constitutional party was led by Governor Dorr. Portions of the "suffrage party," armed, attempted to seize the arsenal at Providence, but were frustrated by a military force led by Governor King. Another armed party, several hundred strong, and led by Dorr, assembled a month later ten miles from Providence. They, also, were dispersed by King.

Governor Dorr was soon afterwards arrested on a charge of high treason, was convicted and sentenced to imprisonment for life, but was released in 1847 under a general amnesty act.

Meanwhile the Legislature had called (February 6, 1841) a Convention to frame a new Constitution. The Convention agreed upon one in February, 1842. It was submitted to the people and rejected. Another Convention framed another Constitution, which was ratified almost unanimously and went into effect in May, 1843.

A controversy concerning boundary lines between Massachusetts and Rhode Island, begun in colonial times, was settled by mutual concessions in 1861. In the spring of that year Rhode Island was among the earliest of the States to respond to the President's call for troops to suppress the rebellion. During the Civil War, that little State, then with a population of only 175,000, furnished to the National army 23,711 soldiers.

The agricultural productions of Rhode Island are not very extensive. It is a manufacturing State, especially in textile fabrics and iron and steel products. In the manufacture of cotton goods the State stands second in the Union, having, in 1880, 30,274 looms, with 1,649,295 spindles. In that year 22,228 persons were employed in the manufacture of cotton goods, and 161,694 bales of cotton were consumed. There were then within the little State 211 miles of railroads in operation. Its expenditures for public instruction were \$530,167. It had 42,489 children enrolled in its public schools, with an average daily attendance of 27,453. The State is sometimes denominated "Little Rhody."

Providence, one of the capitals of Rhode Island, has a population of about 120,000, and Newport, the other capital, has over 20,000.

DELAWARE.

(1638.)



THE smallest State in the Republic next to Rhode Island is Delaware, having an area of 2050 square miles. It is between latitude $38^{\circ} 28'$ and $39^{\circ} 50'$ north, and longitude 75° and $75^{\circ} 46'$ west. Its eastern shores are laved by the Delaware River and Bay and the Atlantic ocean. On the narrow northern boundary is Pennsylvania, and on its west and south borders is Maryland. The population of Delaware, in 1880, was 146,608, of whom 26,448 were colored.

In the northern part of Delaware the country is rolling, beautiful, productive and healthy. In the lower portion is a large cypress swamp and some smaller ones. Delaware and the eastern shore of Maryland form a low peninsula.

The name of the State of Delaware was derived from Lord de la Warr, who, in 1609, was appointed Governor of Virginia, and who, in 1610, sailed into a broad bay, which was named De la Warr (Delaware) Bay. Henry Hudson had entered it and discovered Delaware River in 1609. Samuel Godyn and Samuel Blommaert, Directors of the Dutch West India Company, purchased of the Indians a tract of land stretching along Delaware Bay, from Cape Henlopen north, over thirty miles, and two miles in the interior. They were invested with patroon privileges. Captain David Pietersen de Vries, an eminent Dutch navigator in the employ of the Dutch East India Company, and a friend of Patroon Godyn, also became a patroon, and founded a colony near the site of Lewes, on Delaware Bay, which he called Swaanendael. There thirty emigrants, with cattle and agricultural implements, were seated, but the next year they were all murdered by the Indians and their dwellings were laid waste.

In the year 1638 a colony of Swedes and Finns bought land of the Indians along Delaware Bay and River, from Cape Henlopen north to the Falls of the Delaware, near Trenton. Peter Minuit, formerly Director of

New Netherland (see *New York*), was at the head of the colonists. There were fifty emigrants. They landed at Cape Henlopen. Governor Kieft, at Amsterdam, demanded of Minuit what his object was. He answered, "To plant a colony." Kieft protested and threatened, but the Swedes paid no attention to him. They built a fort on the site of (present) Wilmington, and called it Christina, in honor of the Swedish queen. So was planted the germ of the State of Delaware.

In 1640 Hollanders joined the eastern settlers, and they gave the West India Company much trouble, for they were regarded as intruders on the domain of New Netherland. The settlement was called "New Sweden," and



THOMAS M'KEAN, PROMINENT CHARACTER IN HISTORY OF DELAWARE.

flourished. In 1655 Governor Stuyvesant with a military force seized the domain, and incorporated the colonists with those of New Netherland.

Lord Baltimore, proprietor of Maryland, claimed all the territory on the west side of the Delaware River and Bay to latitude 40°, and settlers from Maryland attempted to drive away the settlers in the present State of Delaware. When, finally, William Penn obtained a grant of Pennsylvania, he was very desirous of owning the land on Delaware Bay to the sea. He obtained a title from the Duke of York (his personal friend) to the country for twelve miles around (present) New Castle, and to the land between that tract and the sea. The formal surrender of this territory to Penn occurred in the presence of all the settlers in October, 1682.

Lord Baltimore still pressed his claim; but in 1685 the Lords of Trade and Plantations made a decision in Penn's favor. Afterwards all conflicting

claims were adjusted by compromise. The portion of his domain, now the State of Delaware, Penn called the "Three Lower Counties on the Delaware"—New Castle, Kent and Sussex. They were governed as a part of Pennsylvania for about twenty years afterwards, each county having six delegates in the Legislature. Then Penn allowed them a separate Legislature—home rule—but not a separate Government. The Governor of Pennsylvania was their chief magistrate until 1776, when the inhabitants declared it an independent State.

It is difficult to draw the line of demarcation between the first permanent settlements in the Provinces of Delaware, New Jersey and Pennsylvania, for they bore such intricate relations to each other that they may be regarded as parts of an episode in the history of American colonization. It is only when Delaware proclaimed itself an independent State that its distinct history begins.

The people of Delaware took an active part in the political discussions preceding the old war for independence. The "Three Lower Counties" sent Cæsar Rodney and Thomas McKean as delegates to the first Continental Congress, that assembled at Philadelphia in September, 1774. The people were earnestly in favor of independence, and on the 15th of June, 1776, the General Assembly of Delaware unanimously approved the resolutions of Congress of May 15, declaring that as the King of Great Britain had made war upon the colonies, and had given no heed to their humble petition for a redress of grievances, no further authority under the Crown should be acknowledged, but should be exercised by the people of the colonies. They overturned the proprietary Government within the borders of Delaware, substituted its name on all occasions for that of the King, and gave new instructions to its delegates in Congress, which left them at liberty to vote, respecting independence, according to their judgment.

On the 20th of September, 1776, the people of the "Three Lower Counties" adopted a State Constitution, and then organized a State Government under the title of Delaware. During the old war for independence her sons were among the best soldiers, and won great distinction. The First Delaware Regiment was particularly noted for its discipline. Captain Caldwell of that regiment was a thorough disciplinarian, was greatly distinguished for his daring spirit and was very popular. He was very fond of cock-fighting. The fine discipline of the regiment was attributed to him; and whenever an officer was sent to recruit men to fill vacancies, it was a saying that they had gone

home for more of Caldwell's game-cocks. The Captain insisted that no cock could be truly game unless its mother was a *blue hen*, and the name of "Blue Hen's chickens" was substituted for "game-cocks." From this circumstance the Commonwealth received the nickname of the "Blue Hen State." It is also called the "Diamond State," from its small size and intrinsic value.

Delaware was the first State that ratified the National Constitution. That act was done on December 7, 1787. It bore its share of the burden of the second war for independence (1812-15), and it furnished one of the Commissioners (Mr. Bayard) who negotiated peace with great Britain at Ghent, late in 1814.

Although Delaware was a slave-labor State, it took very little part in the secession movements at the beginning of 1861. It was still more within the embrace of the free-labor States than Maryland. Its Governor, its representatives in the National Senate, and many leading politicians sympathized with the Secessionists, but the people in general were conservative and loyal.

The Legislature convened at Dover on June 3, 1861, when the Governor in his message charged the impending troubles upon the abolitionists of the North, saying that "from pulpits, rostrums and schools, by press and people," they had waged "a persistent war upon more than \$2,000,000,000 of property"—meaning slaves. On the following day a commissioner from Mississippi was permitted to address the Legislature, who urged the right and duty of secession from the free-labor States. The House by unanimous vote, and a majority of the Senate, expressed their unqualified disapproval of the remedy for existing evils proposed by the emissary from Mississippi.

Thus ended the mission of the representative of the Mississippi Secessionists. This loyal position Delaware maintained throughout the war that ensued, and gave to the National army about 10,000 men. It is a noteworthy fact that Delaware was the only slave-labor State the soil of which was not moistened by the blood of men slain in battle.

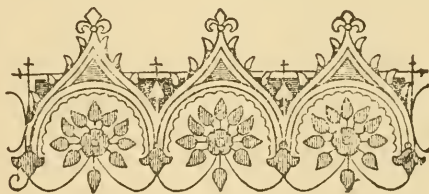
Delaware is pre-eminently a fruit-growing State. It furnishes for the markets of New York and Philadelphia a vast number of peaches, apples, quinces and small fruits; and it has been estimated that, in connection with New Jersey and Maryland, it supplies fully seven-tenths of the entire demand for these products. Farms occupy about ten-thirteenths of the entire area of the State.

Delaware has, also, quite extensive manufactories. The total product

of its manufactures in 1880 was valued at \$20,514,438. It has over 200 miles of railways in operation within its borders.

The Commonwealth had, in 1880, 26,652 children enrolled in the public schools, and 404 schools for white children and fifty-six for colored children. Its total expenditure for public schools in that year was \$221,731. It has a State college and a college for young women.

The largest city in Delaware is Wilmington, with a population in 1880 of 42,478. Its capital, Dover, had 2811. From 1776 to 1787 two of the Governors of Delaware—John D. Minor and Thos. McKean—were residents of Pennsylvania. The first Governor of the State—Joshua Clayton—was elected in 1789.



NORTH CAROLINA.

(1650.)



NORTH CAROLINA is one of the Southern Atlantic States, and was an original member of the American Union. Four sister States lie on three sides of the Commonwealth—Virginia on the north, Tennessee on the west, and South Carolina and Georgia on the south. On the eastern border is the Atlantic Ocean. It lies between $33^{\circ} 49' 45''$ and $36^{\circ} 33'$ north latitude, and $75^{\circ} 25'$ and $84^{\circ} 30'$ west longitude, embraces an area of 52,250 square miles, and, in 1880, ranked fifteen among the States in population, which then numbered 1,399,750. Of these 582,508 were colored persons, including 1230 Indians.

Along the whole seaboard of North Carolina is a continuous line of narrow, low sand-islands (some of them mere sand-banks), stretching southward between the mainland and the ocean, inclosing a series of sounds or lagoons, which are mostly shallow and difficult of navigation. The most considerable of these lagoons is Albemarle Sound, immediately south of the great Dismal Swamp. It extends inland from the sea about sixty miles, and is from four to fifteen miles in width.

The surface of North Carolina, in the southern and south-eastern portions, is level and sandy, and often marshy. The great Dismal Swamp in the northern part of the State lies partly in Virginia. It extends nearly thirty miles from north to south, and averages about ten miles in width. Five navigable rivers rise out of it. The soil of the swamp is a quagmire. It is skirted by a fringe of reeds ten or fifteen feet in height, and it abounds with cedar, cypress, juniper, pine and oak trees of enormous size. This immense swamp is considerably higher than the surrounding country.

From forty to sixty miles from the sea-coast the surface of North Carolina begins to rise into a fine hill-country at the middle of the State, with a most salubrious climate. This beautiful region extends to the mountains in the western part of the Commonwealth, where the Alleghany ranges cross the

State from north to south, presenting several high peaks. The most lofty of these is Clingman's Peak, rising 6,940 feet above the sea-level. The range nearest the coast is known as the Blue Ridge. All are covered with verdure to their summits.

The coast of North Carolina was visited by two English navigators—Amidas and Barlow—in two vessels in 1584. They were sent by Sir Thomas Raleigh. It is conjectured that the coast was seen by Sebastian Cabot in 1498, and by Verazzani in 1524. The first attempt to plant a settlement in that region was made by Raleigh, who, in 1585, sent 108 persons, with Sir



WILLIAM R. DAVIE, PROMINENT IN THE HISTORY OF NORTH CAROLINA.

Ralph Lane as their Governor, to plant a colony on what had just been named Virginia. (See *Virginia*.) They landed on Roanoke Island. But Lane and his colony were more intent on a quest for gold than for founding a permanent settlement. By their bad conduct they offended the natives, who had received them most kindly. The barbarians refused supplies of food for the intruders, and they almost starved. Afraid of the dusky enemies they had made, the survivors of Lane's party abandoned the country, and returned to England in one of Drake's ships, which had touched at the island.

In 1587 Raleigh sent an agricultural colony to Roanoke Island, with John White as their Governor. He was accompanied by his son-in-law and his young wife. It was intended to plant the colony on the main land, but

White went no further than the island. The emigrants cultivated the friendship of the Indians. White soon returned to England for supplies, leaving behind eighty men, seventeen women and two children. His daughter had given birth to a child since their arrival, to whom she gave the name of Virginia.

White touched at Ireland on his return voyage to England, where he left some potatoes which he had found under cultivation by the natives on Roanoke Island. They were the first ever seen in Europe. From this same spot Amidas and Barlow had carried some tobacco to England, the first ever seen in Europe.

White sailed for Roanoke Island with two ships with supplies; but, instead of going directly to America, he pursued two Spanish ships in quest of plunder. His own vessels were so battered in a fight that he was compelled to return to England. He did not reach America until 1590, when he found Roanoke Island a desolation. Not a trace of the colony could be found. It is believed that, despairing of White's return, they had gone to the main land, and, in time, mingled with the barbarians there; for, long years afterwards, families of the Hatteras tribe exhibited unmistakable marks of European blood.

No other attempts to plant a colony on the soil of North Carolina were successfully made until the middle of the 17th century. So early as 1609 some people from Jamestown, in Virginia, seated themselves on the Nansmond River, near the Dismal Swamp; and, in 1622, the secretary of the Virginia Colony (John Povey) penetrated the country southward beyond the Roanoke River, with a view to make a settlement there.

In 1630 Charles I. granted to Sir Richard Heath, his attorney-general, a patent for a domain south of Virginia, six degrees of latitude in width, extending from Albermarle Sound to the St. John's River in Florida, and westward to the Pacific Ocean. No settlement was made there, and the charter was forfeited.

At that time Dissenters, or Nonconformists, were suffering many disabilities in Virginia, and looked to the wilderness for freedom. In 1653 Roger Green and a few Presbyterians left that colony and settled upon the Chowan River, near (present) Edenton. Other Nonconformists joined them and the colony flourished. Thus was planted the permanent and fruitful germ of the Commonwealth of North Carolina.

Governor Berkeley, of Virginia, wisely organized these settlements into

a separate political community in 1663. William Drummond, a Scotch Presbyterian minister, then in Virginia, was appointed their Governor. The settlement was named "Albemarle County colony," in honor of the Duke of Albemarle, who had become proprietor of the territory.

Some New England adventurers had planted themselves on the borders of the Cape Fear River, near the site of (present) Wilmington, in 1661, but many of them soon abandoned the country, partly on account of the poverty of the soil, and partly because Charles II. had given the whole region to eight of his courtiers. The domain was named "Carolina."

The charter given to these countries extended the domain northward so as to include Albemarle County colony, and southward so as to include all Florida, excepting its peninsula.

In 1665 a company of planters from Barbadoes bought lands of the Indians near the site of Wilmington, on the Cape Fear River, where they founded a settlement, with Sir John Yeamans as their Governor. It was organized into a political community, and named the "Clarendon County colony," in compliment to the Earl of Clarendon, the historian, one of the proprietors. Yeamans's jurisdiction extended from the Cape Fear to the St. John's River. This settlement was permanent, but the poverty of the soil prevented a rapid increase in the population. It was in the region of the pine forests and sandy levels. Then was founded the Commonwealth of North Carolina. In 1674 the population of that province was about 4000.

Settlements had now begun further south in the domain of Carolina. The proprietors had gorgeous visions of a grand empire in America, and in 1669 the Earl of Shaftesbury (one of the proprietors) and John Locke, the philosopher, prepared a scheme of government for the colony, having orders of nobility—a feudal system wholly at variance with the feelings of the settlers. It was never put into operation.

Excessive taxation and other causes of discontent caused the people of Albemarle County to revolt in 1677. They seized the Governor and imprisoned him; and six of his Council called an Assembly, appointed a new Governor and Judges, and for two years conducted public affairs independent of foreign control.

In 1683 the proprietors sent Seth Sothel to North Carolina as Governor. He ruled the colony for six years, when, his rapacity and corruption being unendurable, the people banished him. In 1695 John Archdale, a Quaker,

became Governor. His justice and integrity restored order and good feeling, when the colony started on a prosperous career.

In 1711, after the colony had passed through the excitement of a rebellion, caused by the bad conduct of a Governor, the province became involved in war with the Indians within its borders, and suffered dreadfully. In one night (October 2, 1711) 130 persons were massacred by the barbarians. Troops and friendly Indians came to their aid from the "Carteret County colony" (afterwards South Carolina), when hostilities ceased for a time. War broke out again in 1713, when eight hundred Tuscarora Indians were captured, and the remainder of their tribe fled northward and joined their kindred, the Iroquois, in New York.

In 1729 Carolina became a royal province, and was permanently divided into two parts, called respectively "North Carolina" and "South Carolina." Settlements in the North State gradually increased. The people, with competent leaders, took part in the political discussions preceding the war for independence; and in 1769 the Assembly of North Carolina denied the right of Parliament to tax the colonies without their consent. An insurrectionary movement began in the interior of the colony in 1770-71 on account of the rapacity and extortion of their rulers. The people formed an association known as "the Regulators." A sanguinary battle was fought in May, 1771, when nearly forty men were killed. These events caused fierce hatred of British rule in that province.

North Carolina sent delegates to the first Continental Congress in 1774, and associations were formed in different parts of the province for mutual defense. A general meeting of delegates of the people of twenty-six counties and seven towns was held at New Berne on April 3, 1775. The General Assembly of the Province was in session at the same time. The royal Governor dissolved them on the 8th, and they never met again. The people formed a provincial Convention, which assumed governmental authority.

Finally, a popular defensive association of Mecklenburg County assembled at Charlotte at the close of May, 1775, and by a series of bold resolves virtually declared the independence of the colonies, and provided for an independent government in Mecklenburg County.

Alarmed by the aspect of public affairs, the royal Governor, Martin, abdicated, and took refuge on board a British war-vessel in the Cape Fear River. Then the provincial Convention organized a body of troops. The delegates of the province in the Continental Congress, in 1776, were authorized to vote

for independence, and the great Declaration was ratified by the people in August, 1776.

A Convention met at Halifax in December, 1776, and framed a State Constitution, and that instrument remained the fundamental law of the Commonwealth until 1835.

Richard Caswell was chosen the first Governor of the new State. One of its most distinguished citizens was William Richardson Davie, who was only twenty years of age when the Declaration of Independence was adopted; but before the close of the war he was at the head of a corps of cavalry doing noble service for his State. He was Governor of North Carolina in 1798, and was afterwards employed in the diplomatic service of his country in France.

During the old war for independence the State suffered much from the operations of contending armies. One of the most notable battles of the war—Guilford Court House—occurred on its soil. It also suffered much from contending political factions.

The Tories or Loyalists in North Carolina were numerous, especially among a large Scotch population. The Whigs, however, were largely in the majority, and in 1780 they treated the Tories with great severity. Cornwallis, in South Carolina, had sent emissaries among the Tories, who advised them to keep quiet until they had gathered their crops, in autumn, when the British army would march to their assistance. But, impatient of the severities to which they were exposed, they flew to arms at once, but were defeated and dispersed. After the battle at Guilford Court House, early in 1781, Cornwallis, who had entered the State, as promised, fled toward the seaboard and into Virginia.

The people of North Carolina, in representative Convention assembled, in 1788, rejected the National Constitution, but ratified it the next year. The people, industrious and frugal, prospered. They suffered very little from the effects of the war of 1812–15, for they had no battle or severe losses within their territory.

Although North Carolina was a slave-labor State, its people, as a rule, were not inclined to sympathize with the Secession movements late in 1860 and early in 1861. Great efforts, however, were made by the Secessionists within and without its domain to force the State into revolution. Its Governor favored the movement. Its United States Senator (Clingman) made early efforts to arouse the people of that State to revolt; but love for the

Union was so strong among them that they did not readily follow such leaders. The South Carolinians taunted them with cowardice; the Virginia Secessionists treated them with coldness; the Alabamians and the Mississippians coaxed them by the lips of Commissioners.

The Legislature of North Carolina, that met on November 19, 1860, provided for a Convention, but directed that no ordinance of that Convention "dissolving the connection of the State of North Carolina with the Federal Government, or connecting it with any other, shall have any force or validity until it shall have been submitted to and ratified by a majority of the qualified voters of the State," to whom it should be submitted at least a month after such submission should be advertised.

Although there was no pretense of secession for months later, the Governor caused the United States forts within its borders and the United States arsenal at Fayetteville, which the disloyal Secretary of War had filled with arms for northern arsenals, to be seized. These movements the people condemned.

The Secessionists finally persuaded the Legislature to authorize a Secession Convention. The Governor was vested with authority to raise 10,000 men, and it gave the State Treasurer power to issue bills of credit to the amount of \$500,000. It defined treason to be making war upon the State.

The Secession Convention met on May 20, 1861, and on the same day adopted and issued an Ordinance of Secession by a unanimous vote. On the same day the Governor issued an order for the enrolment of 30,000 men. Within three weeks not less than 20,000 were in arms. The United States Mint at Charlotte was seized.

Some of the most stirring events in the Civil War occurred on the coasts of North Carolina, and in the adjacent waters. Roanoke Island and the forts on Cape Hatteras were taken by National troops early in the war. Its sounds and their shores witnessed many minor conflicts. Fort Fisher, at the mouth of Cape Fear River, was captured in February, 1865. Soon afterwards General Sherman made a victorious march through North Carolina, and General Johnson's army was surrendered on its soil.

On May 29, 1865, W. W. Holden was made provisional Governor of the State, and in October a Convention of delegates assembled at Raleigh, adopted resolutions declaring the Ordinance of Secession null, abolishing slavery and repudiating the State debt created in aid of the great insurrection. A new Legislature ratified the amendment to the National Constitution abolishing

slavery. But the new Government of the State did not meet with the approval of Congress.

In 1867 a military government for North Carolina was established, and measures were taken for a reorganization of the civil government. At the next election the votes of sixty thousand emancipated colored people were cast.

In January, 1868, a Convention adopted a new Constitution. It was ratified by the people in April, was approved by Congress, and in June North Carolina was declared to be entitled to representation in that body. On March 4, 1869, the people of North Carolina adopted the Fifteenth amendment to the National Constitution by a large majority.

The chief industry of North Carolina is agriculture, producing all kinds of cereals in abundance, also tobacco and cotton in large quantities, while its pine forests produce a vast amount of tar and turpentine. On this account the Commonwealth has received the names of "The Tar State" and "The Turpentine State." Its manufacturing industries are not large or numerous. Its mineral resources are enormous. Before the acquisition of California, the richest gold mines known in the United States were in North Carolina, and a mint, for coinage, was established at Charlotte. Silver, lead, zinc and copper are found there; also diamonds. Its chief mineral wealth consists of iron and bituminous coal. There are over 1600 miles of railways in the State.

Provision for popular education in North Carolina is liberal. In 1880 there were 265,422 children enrolled in its public schools, with an average daily attendance of 181,576. It expended for its public schools that year \$338,700. There are eight colleges in the State, and several higher seminaries of learning.



NEW JERSEY.

(1664.)



NEW JERSEY is one of the Middle Atlantic States, and one of the original thirteen. It lies between the Atlantic Ocean and the Hudson River, and Delaware Bay and River, extending from latitude $38^{\circ} 55'$ and $41^{\circ} 21' 19''$ north, and longitude $73^{\circ} 53'$ and $75^{\circ} 33'$ west. On its western borders are the States of Pennsylvania and Delaware, and on the north and east the State of New York. The territory embraces an area of 7,815 square miles, occupied by a population, in 1880, of 1,092,007, of whom 39,099 were colored, including a few Indians and Chinese. It then ranked nineteen in population among the States.

The southern and middle portions of the State are generally low, level and sandy, especially near the coast. The north half of the State is traversed by three distinct ranges of lofty hills. Two of them, the Kittatinney or Blue Mountains (Shawangunk in New York) and the Highland range belong to the Appalachian chain.

As we have observed (see *Delaware*), it is difficult to draw the line of demarcation in the early history of Pennsylvania, New Jersey and Delaware, they were then so intimately connected. The territory of New Jersey was claimed to be a part of New Netherland.

So early as 1620, some Dutch traders of New Amsterdam seated themselves at Bergen, and in 1623 Captain Jacobus May, with a company of the Walloon emigrants (see *New York*), built Fort Nassau at the mouth of Timmer Kill, near Gloucester, on the Delaware, four miles below Philadelphia. There four young married couples began a settlement, but it did not succeed.

In 1634 Sir Edmund Plowden, or Bloyden, obtained a grant from the British monarch of a tract of land on the New Jersey side of the Delaware, and called it "New Albion." Four years later some Swedes and Finns bought lands from the Indians in that vicinity and began some settlements. The Swedes planted a colony, called it "New Sweden," and in 1655 were

dispossessed by Stuyvesant, the Dutch Governor of New Netherland, with a military force.

After the English took forcible possession of New Netherland, in 1664, Governor Nicolls, under the authority of the Duke of York, proceeded to give patents for lands within the present domain of New Jersey. The Duke afterwards granted that portion of his claimed territory to two of his favorites, Lord Berkeley, brother of the Governor of Virginia, and Sir George Carteret. The latter had been Governor of the Island of Jersey during the Civil War, and defended it against Parliamentary troops. Settlements under grants by Nicolls had already been begun at (present) Newark, Middletown,



WILLIAM LIVINGSTON, FIRST GOVERNOR OF NEW JERSEY.

and Shrewsbury. The name of New Jersey was given to the domain in compliment to Carteret.

The new proprietors sent Philip Carteret, a cousin of Sir George, as Governor of the domain, who bore with him a Constitution as the supreme law for the colony, which grew very rapidly, for its terms were liberal. It provided a government composed of a Governor and Council, and a representative assembly chosen by the people.

Four English families from Long Island had seated themselves under a patent from Nicolls at a place which the Governor named Elizabethtown, in honor of Elizabeth, wife of Sir George, and there he built a house for himself.

The first Legislative Assembly of New Jersey convened at Elizabethtown in 1668. It was vested with all Legislative powers, while the Executive power was intrusted to the Governor and Council. Its most urgent business

was to endeavor to adjust conflicting claims by those who had received patents from Nicolls and from the new proprietors. These disputes, which sometimes assumed the proportions of violent quarrels, disturbed the colony for some years.

Other troubles arose. The proprietors published a form of agreement called "Concessions," containing liberal offers to emigrants who might settle in the territory. Among other provisions was an exemption from the payment of quit-rents and other taxes for the space of five years. These concessions, the salubrity of the climate and the fertility of the soil, lured many settlers to the domain.

The colony was peaceable and prosperous until 1670, when a quit-rent of a half-penny for each acre was demanded. The settlers murmured. Those who had purchased land from the Indians denied the right of the proprietors to exact a quit-rent. The people combined in resisting the payment, and finally revolted. They called a popular assembly, deposed Governor Carteret, and put a dissolute, illegitimate son of Sir George in his place. The proprietors were preparing to subdue the people, when all of New Netherland fell into the hands of the Dutch.

When the English again took possession of New York, by virtue of a treaty, the Duke obtained a new charter, and New Jersey was placed under the rule of Governor Andros, "the tyrant of New England." Carteret demurred, and his rights were partially restored. Berkeley was disgusted, and sold his rights to an English Quaker, who, becoming financially embarrassed, disposed of his interest in the province to William Penn and others in 1675. The next year the province was divided into East and West Jersey, Carteret receiving the Eastern and the Quakers the Western division.

There was a large emigration of Quakers from England to West Jersey, who settled below the Raritan River, under a very liberal government. Andros demanded their allegiance, but it was refused. This matter was referred to high legal authority in England and the settlers were sustained.

The first popular assembly in New Jersey met at Salem in November, 1661, and adopted a code of laws for the government of the people. After the death of Carteret, in 1679, East Jersey was offered for sale. It was purchased by William Penn and eleven others of his co-religionists in 1682, who appointed Robert Barclay, a young Scotch Quaker and one of the proprietors, Governor. Emigrants from Britain and from Long Island flocked into East Jersey, but were compelled to endure the petty tyranny of Andros until the

Duke, become James II., was driven from the throne and Andros was sent to England.

The colony was without a regular civil government for several years. Contentions and losses discouraged the proprietors, and in 1702 the domain of New Jersey was surrendered to the Crown. The infamous Lord Cornbury, Governor of New York, misruled it for a time, and made the people political slaves. The province remained a dependency of New York, with a distinct Legislature, until 1738, when it was made an independent colony, and so remained until the old war for independence. Its first Governor was Lewis Morris. The last royal Governor of the Colony was William Franklin, the only son of Dr. Benjamin Franklin, who, when the Revolution broke out, remained loyal to the Crown. He defied public opinion, and in June, 1776, was arrested and sent a prisoner to Connecticut, where he was kept under strict guard about two years, and was then exchanged.

The people of New Jersey took an active part in the ante-revolutionary disputes with Great Britain, and made a decided stand against the Crown after the affair at Lexington, in April, 1775. They had been ably represented in the First Continental Congress. On May 2, 1775, the Provincial Committee of Correspondence directed its chairman to summon a Provincial Congress of deputies to meet at Trenton on the 23d of the same month. Thirteen counties were there represented, when Hendrick Fisher was chosen president of the Congress.

Governor Franklin summoned a session of the Provincial Assembly on the 15th of May, but they declined to appear or take any decisive action without the consent of the Continental Congress, then in session. The Provincial Congress adopted measures for organizing the militia and the issuing of bills of credit to the amount of \$50,000. In June, 1776, Governor Franklin again called a meeting of the old Provincial Assembly, and for this offense he was arrested and sent a prisoner to Connecticut, as we have observed.

On the 2d of July, 1776, the Provincial Congress adopted a State Constitution, which was ratified on the 18th, and New Jersey took a position as an independent State of the Union. Under that Constitution the State was governed until 1844, when the present Constitution was adopted. The early instrument allowed universal suffrage, without distinction of sex or color. The present Constitution restricts the suffrage to white men over twenty-one years of age.

Some of the most stirring events of the old war for independence oc-

curred on New Jersey soil. The exciting chase of Washington across the State from the Hudson to the Delaware by Earl Cornwallis took place at near the close of 1776, and soon afterwards the battles of Trenton and Princeton were fought. Then the State was wrested from the invading British. Later, the sanguinary battle of Monmouth Court House occurred in the more southern region of the State, and events which made Morristown famous occurred in the beautiful hill-country of New Jersey. The State suffered much during the war from the incursions of British troops, German mercenaries and resident Tories.

The first Legislature of New Jersey, after its State organization, met at Princeton in August, 1776, and chose William Livingston Governor. The people of that State were among the earliest to ratify the National Constitution, which event occurred, by unanimous vote, on December 18, 1787. The State capital was established at Trenton in 1790.

The State of New Jersey was not disturbed by the intercolonial wars, nor by the second war for independence, though it bore its share of the burdens imposed; but, like all the other States of the Union, it was deeply concerned in the great Civil War, in 1861-65. The members of the Legislature, which assembled on January 8, 1861, were divided in sentiment, chiefly on political partisan grounds. The Governor, in his message, favored the compromise measures then before Congress; or, in the event of their not being adopted, he recommended a delegate Convention of all the States to agree upon some plan of pacification. The Democratic party had a majority of the New Jersey Legislature. A majority of the Committee on National Affairs reported resolutions endorsing the so-called "Crittenden compromise," which were adopted by the Democratic majority of the Legislature on the 31st as "the sentiment of the people of the State." The Republican minority denied this assertion, and by resolutions they declared the willingness of the people of the State to aid the Government in the execution of all the laws of Congress. They asserted the *nationality* of the General Government, as against State supremacy; declared it to be the duty of the National Government to maintain its authority everywhere within the limits of the Republic, and pledged the faith and power of New Jersey in aid of that Government to any extent required. The people redeemed that pledge, and furnished the National army with 79,511 soldiers.

In 1870 the State Legislature refused to ratify the Fifteenth amendment to the National Constitution, which gave the elective franchise to the colored

population, claiming for each State the right to regulate its own suffrage laws.

The industry of the people of New Jersey is largely devoted to agriculture, yet its manufactures are very extensive. Cotton fabrics are quite extensively manufactured in New Jersey. In 1880 there were engaged in it 3,334 looms, running 232,305 spindles. The aggregate product of its iron and steel manufactures was valued at \$10,341,896.

There are over 1750 miles of railroad in operation within the State of New Jersey. The assessed value of its property was \$572,518,361, in 1880. The State exercises a zealous, fostering care for the instruction of its children. It expended for public schools in 1880 \$2,039,930. There were 205,240 children enrolled in the public schools, with an average attendance of 11,860. There are in the State four universities and colleges, the College of New Jersey, at Princeton, being one of the oldest institutions of learning in America. It has numerous normal schools, seminaries for young women, and academies.

The largest cities in New Jersey, in 1880, were Jersey City and Newark, the former having 153,503 inhabitants, and the latter 152,988. Its capital (Trenton) had 34,386.



SOUTH CAROLINA.

(1670.)



SOUTH CAROLINA is one of the Southern Atlantic States, and an original member of the Republic. It lies between latitude $35^{\circ} 13'$ and $32^{\circ} 4'$ north, and longitude $78^{\circ} 28'$ and $83^{\circ} 18''$ west, embracing an area of 30,570 square miles. In 1880 it had a population of 995,577, of whom considerably more than one-half were colored, they (including 131 Indians) numbering 604,472.

The south-eastern boundary of the State is washed by the Atlantic Ocean; on the north and north-east is the State of North Carolina, and on the south-west the State of Georgia, from which it is separated by the Savannah River.

From eighty to one hundred miles from the sea-coast the country is low, alluvial, and in some sections it presents swamps and marshes, through which sluggish streams flow into land-locked bays and sounds along the coast. In the middle of the State is a belt of low sand-hills which are somewhat fertile. Beyond this region "the Ridge" rises in terraces, its greatest height being the Blue Ridge, in the north-western part of the State, where its highest point, Table Mountain, reaches an altitude of 4,000 feet above the sea. The State is thoroughly watered, its largest stream being the Santee River, which, with its tributaries, drains the central part of the Commonwealth. The numerous islands along the coast are very fertile.

The first attempt to plant a settlement in South Carolina was made by John Ribault and a party of Huguenots or French Protestants. They came in two ships, discovered and named the St. John's River in Florida, and, sailing northward, entered a broad inlet and harbor, to which they gave the name of Port Royal. They landed on a beautiful island, where they built a fort, and named it Carolina, in honor of Charles IX., King of France. That was in 1562. D'Allyon, a Spanish adventurer, had made a brief tarry on the

shores of South Carolina as early as 1520. Ribault and his companions soon abandoned it

As we have remarked in the sketch of North Carolina, this region was granted to eight of the favorites of Charles II., who, in 1670, sent three ships, with emigrants, under the direction of Sir William Sayle and Joseph West, to plant a colony below Cape Fear. They entered Port Royal Sound, and landed on Beaufort Island, at the very spot where the Huguenots had sojourned for a while and built a fort.

These English immigrants soon abandoned Beaufort, sailed northward, entered what is now Charleston Harbor, went up a river (now the Ashley), and seated themselves on its right banks. West exercised the functions of



WILLIAM MOULTRIE, FIRST GOVERNOR OF SOUTH CAROLINA.

Governor until the arrival of Sir John Yeamans, the Governor of both the Carolinas, late in 1671, with fifty families and a large number of African slaves from Barbadoes. Civil government was established the next year under the title of "The Carteret County colony," so named in honor of Sir George Carteret, one of the grantees (see *New Jersey*). So was planted the germ of the State of South Carolina.

Ten years later this colony removed to Oyster Point, at the junction of (present) Ashley and Cooper rivers, where they founded a city, and named it Charlestown or Charleston. It was laid out by John Culpepper, who had been surveyor-general of North Carolina.

Not long after this, some Dutch families, dissatisfied with English rule

at New York, went to South Carolina and seated themselves along the Santee and Edisto rivers. The proprietors of the Carolinas tried to induce the settlers to accept as a form of government the plan drawn up by Locke and Shaftesbury, called *Fundamental Constitutions*, but they refused compliance.

West remained nominal Governor for several years. The colony increased. It was soon made up of different nationalities and characteristics. There were cavaliers and their sons, of the English aristocracy, who had come as adventurers; Irish and Scotch Presbyterians; French Huguenots; German and Swiss Protestants, Moravians and Bohemians. The cavaliers were disposed to "lord it" over the others, and political and religious quarrels distracted the colony for a long time. The people were often in opposition to the proprietary rulers, and in 1690 they broke out into open rebellion, when the popular Assembly impeached and banished Governor John Colleton.

At this juncture Seth Sothel, banished from North Carolina, arrived, when the people chose him for their Governor. For fully two years he plundered and oppressed them, when he, too, was deposed and banished. When Philip Ludlow came to govern for the proprietors, though a good man, the aroused colonists resolved not to tolerate him. He tried to enforce the Fundamental Constitutions, but soon gladly withdrew from the turbulent community.

A conciliatory spirit now gained influence over the colony. In 1695 John Archdale, an English Quaker, came to govern the province. His eldest sister had married Sir Ferdinando Gorges (see *New Hampshire* and *Maine*), and he was one of the Carolina proprietors. On his arrival in South Carolina he formed a commission of sensible and moderate men, to whom he expressed the desire and determination to allay all ill feeling in the colony. He was then seventy years of age. His mild, republican rule made the people happy.

For the first time South Carolina issued bills of credit on account of a burden of debt laid upon it by its ambitious Governor, Moore, who led an unsuccessful expedition against the Spaniards at St. Augustine, Florida, in 1702. The debt incurred was \$26,000. The Governor conducted a more successful expedition against the Appalachian Indians the next year. They were in league with the Spaniards. He made their whole territory in Georgia tributary to South Carolina.

At about this time the proprietors attempted to establish the Anglican Church ritual as the State method of worship in South Carolina, and the Assembly excluded all dissenters from public offices. The British ministry

compelled the Assembly to repeal the law, but the Church party remained dominant.

A French and Spanish fleet attacked Charleston in 1706, but were repulsed. A few years later (1715) a general Indian Confederacy was formed for the extermination of the white people in South Carolina. They came upon the Carolinas from Georgia, from the west, and from North Carolina. After several encounters the South Carolinians expelled the dusky invaders from their borders. These conflicts involved the colony in more debt. The proprietors seemed indifferent, when the suffering people arose in their might (1719), and deposing the proprietary Governor, put another magistrate in his place. They organized a government independent of the proprietors. The difficulty was solved by the purchase of the two Carolinas by the King of England for about \$80,000. In 1729 the two territories were separated, and became distinct royal provinces.

From that time, until the French and Indian War, the colony was prosperous, though troubled occasionally by hostile Indians and Spaniards. The colony was loyal. But when the oppressive laws devised by the British ministry aroused all the English-American colonies to resistance, South Carolina participated in the movement. The people early took measures to resist the invasion of their rights. A provincial Congress was formed in 1774, and delegates were sent to the Continental Congress at Philadelphia. The royal Governor (Lord Campbell) abdicated the government, and took refuge from the wrath of the Whigs on board a British war vessel in Charleston Harbor, in September, 1775, when royal power ceased and the government was administered by a Provincial Council.

In March, 1776, a State Constitution was adopted, when the Council resolved itself into an Assembly, and chose from its own body a Legislative Council of thirteen members. John Rutledge was chosen President and Henry Laurens Vice-President. This government was formed to last only until the end of the war. William Moultrie was elected first Governor in 1785.

South Carolina suffered fearfully during the war for independence, from invasions of British armies and the violence of factions—the bitterness of Whigs and Tories. Several severe battles and many sanguinary encounters between partisans occurred. Charleston was seized by the British in 1780, and held by them until the end of the war.

On the 28th of May, 1788, the people, in representative Convention, ratified the National Constitution. The first permanent State Constitution

was adopted by the Legislature, without submission to the people, on June 3, 1790. Charles Pinckney had been chosen Governor at the close of 1789. Among the most distinguished of the early patriots and statesmen of South Carolina, was Charles Cotesworth Pinckney, who bore a very active part in civil and military affairs during the Revolution. He was sent as minister to the revolutionary government of France in 1796. When the Directory demanded tribute, Pinckney said: "Millions for defense but not one cent for tribute."

The chief agricultural product, cotton, had made a very profitable industry after the introduction of Whitney's cotton-gin, and the slave-labor system became vitally important. The number of slaves rapidly increased, and in 1820 they exceeded in number the white people. The high tariffs imposed were unfavorable to the cotton-growing States, and great political excitement was manifested in some of them, particularly in South Carolina, from 1828 to 1833. The "Nullification" movement in that State was defiance of National authority.

Immediately after the Presidential election in 1832, a South Carolina State Convention met and adopted, by unanimous vote, an ordinance which pronounced the tariff "null and void, and no law, nor binding on the State, its officers and citizens"; and prohibited the payment of duties on imports imposed by that law within the State after February 1, 1833. It declared that no appeal in the matter should be made to the Supreme Court of the United States against the validity of an Act to that effect, and that, should the National Government attempt to enforce the law thus nullified, or interfere with the foreign commerce of the State, the people of South Carolina would "hold themselves absolved from all further obligations to maintain and preserve their political connection with the people of the other States."

This was an assertion of State sovereignty or State supremacy, pure and simple. The defiance of the National authority brought forth a strong proclamation from President Jackson, and preparations were made to sustain that authority, by force of arms, if necessary. Compromise tariff laws were enacted by Congress, and civil war at that time was averted. State pride fostered the political idea of State supremacy. It was the basis of the nullification movement, and it made the political leaders of South Carolina eager to become pioneers in the secession movements which culminated in civil war.

A more active and powerful nullification and secession movement occurred in South Carolina nearly thirty years after that of 1832. The attitude of the Northern States toward the slave system of the South had alarmed

and disturbed the people of the latter section; and when the Republican party, formed in 1854, nominated Abraham Lincoln, a pronounced Anti-Slavery man, for President of the United States, threats of secession from the Union were made by the politicians in the slave-labor States. When Lincoln was elected, in the fall of 1860, measures for that purpose were adopted. In this movement South Carolina took the lead. A State Convention assembled first at Columbia, the State capital, and then at Charleston, and adopted an ordinance of secession on December 20, 1860. The Convention adopted a declaration of independence, and the Governor of the State declared its sovereignty. The newspapers of Charleston gave items of intelligence from the other States of the Union under the heading of "Foreign News."

A few days after the Ordinance of Secession was passed, Civil War was begun in Charleston Harbor, by insurgents in batteries on the shores, firing on a national vessel that entered it, and by the seizure of national property within its borders. In April, 1861, citizens of South Carolina attacked Fort Sumter, in Charleston Harbor, whereupon the President of the United States called for 75,000 men to put down the rising rebellion. Meanwhile the politicians in other slave-labor States had passed ordinances of Secession, and were in an attitude of revolt.

Assuming an attitude of sovereignty, South Carolina sent commissioners to the National Government to treat upon public matters. They were not received. During the Civil War that was then begun, the people of South Carolina suffered dreadfully. Slavery was abolished throughout the Union. At the close of the war the President of the United States appointed (June 30, 1865) a provisional Governor for South Carolina, and in September a State Convention repealed the Ordinance of Secession and declared slavery abolished. State officers were chosen in October. This government was superseded by military government in March, 1867.

On January 14, 1868, at a Convention composed of thirty-four white people and sixty-three colored people, a State Constitution for South Carolina was adopted. It was ratified at an election in April, 1869, by a large majority, when members of the Legislature (72 white and 85 colored) and representatives in Congress were chosen. On the ratification of the Fourteenth amendment to the National Constitution, the reorganization of the Commonwealth was practically effected. The military power had been withdrawn on July 13, 1868, and the Fifteenth amendment to the Constitution was ratified in March, 1869.

The signing of the South Carolina Secession ordinance was performed with considerable dramatic effect. It had been engrossed on parchment, twenty-five by thirty-three inches in size, with the great seal of South Carolina attached. The Governor and his Council, and both branches of the Legislature, were assembled in a large public hall, which was densely crowded with men and women of Charleston. Back of the President's chair was suspended a banner composed of cotton cloth, with devices rudely painted in water-color by a Charleston artist. The base of the design was a mass of broken and disordered blocks of stone, bearing the names of the Free-labor States of the Union, showing their ruin. Rising from them were two columns, composed of symmetrical blocks, bearing the names of the Slave-labor States, representing the new order of things. Over these was a sort of arch, of which South Carolina was the key-stone. In the space formed by the two columns and the arch was the device on the seal and flag of South Carolina—a palmetto tree with a rattlesnake coiled around its trunk, and the legend on a fluttering ribbon "Southern Republic." On the keystone of the arch was a picture of John C. Calhoun, leaning against a palmetto tree. Beneath all were the words—"Built from the Ruins."

After the signature of every member of the Convention was affixed to the Ordinance, a venerable clergyman, a native of New York State, advanced to the front of the platform and invoked the blessings of Almighty God upon the act just performed. Then the President of the Convention stepped forward, read and exhibited the instrument to the people, and said:

"The Ordinance of Secession has been signed, and I proclaim the State of South Carolina an independent Commonwealth."

A shout of exultation went up from the multitude. So closed the first great act of the terrible drama of Civil War in the United States.

The climate of South Carolina is like that of the south of France and the north of Spain. Its largest agricultural product is cotton; its manufactured products are limited in amount, and these are chiefly textile fabrics. In 1880 there were a little over 1400 miles of railways within the State, which had cost \$36,741,000.

The number of children of school age in South Carolina in 1880 was little more than 228,000, of whom 134,000 were enrolled in the public schools. The aggregate expenditure for these schools in 1880 was \$367,259. There are eight universities or colleges in the State. In 1880, of 667,456 persons of ten years of age and upwards, 321,780 were unable to read or write.

PENNSYLVANIA.

(1682.)



PENNSYLVANIA, one of the original States of the Republic, and one of the middle States of the Atlantic slope, lies between latitude $39^{\circ} 43'$ and $42^{\circ} 15'$ north, and longitude $74^{\circ} 43' 36''$ and $80^{\circ} 31' 36''$ west. It embraces an area of 45,215 square miles. In the census of 1880 this State ranked second in population, the number of its people then being 4,282,891, of whom 85,875 were colored, including 148 Chinese and 184 Indians.

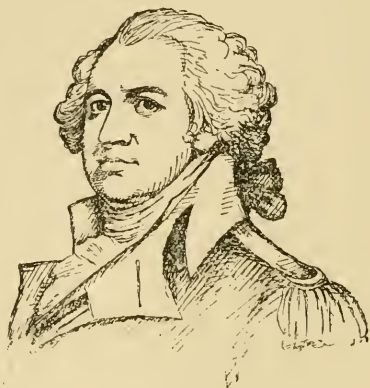
Pennsylvania presents a greater variety of surface than any other State in the Union. Its mountains spread over a fourth part of the State, in almost parallel ridges. The Appalachian chain crosses the State in a belt varying in width from seventy-five to one hundred and sixty miles, trending from north-east to south-west. Between these ridges are beautiful and very fertile valleys, varying in width from two or three to thirty miles. The mountains are high and rugged in the northern part of the State, but seldom rise over 2000 feet above the sea level. The principal river of the State is the Susquehanna, with its sources in New York and Western Pennsylvania. The chief head waters of the Ohio River are in Pennsylvania. The Delaware River washes its eastern border, and separates it from the States of New Jersey and New York. On the north is Lake Erie, a short distance, and the State of New York; on the west is Ohio, and on the south Virginia and West Virginia.

The Dutch, as we have observed, claimed jurisdiction over the waters of Delaware Bay and River. This claim was first assailed by a colony of Swedes and Finns. (See *New Jersey*.) They settled on the western side of these waters, yet they were regarded by the proprietors of New Netherland as intruders. The Dutch, under Governor Stuyvesant, subdued and absorbed them.

A large territory west of the Delaware river was granted (1681) by Charles II. to William Penn, son of Admiral Penn, a favorite of the King.

The monarch owed the Admiral's estate about \$80,000, and the charter for the territory was given in payment of that debt. The King directed the region to be called Penn-sylvania, or "Penn's wooded country," in the patent. The modest Quaker objected to this personal distinction, but to no purpose.

William Penn was a zealous member of a sect of Puritans called "Friends," and Quakers, in derision, who were suffering persecution in England at that time. He sent a colony of "Friends" to his domain, under the general superintendence of William Markham, with instructions to deal kindly and honestly with every one. The Swedes, who had seated themselves in his territory, were treated with great consideration and kindness. He also proposed a scheme of liberal government for his colony.



THOMAS MIFFLIN, FIRST GOVERNOR OF PENNSYLVANIA.

Penn had secured from the Duke of York a proprietary title to the territory of the (present) State of Delaware (which see) in August, 1682, and in September he sailed for America, with a few emigrants, in the ship *Welcome*. At the end of six weeks he landed (October 28th, O.S.) near the site of (present) New Castle, Delaware, where he was warmly welcomed by about 1000 settlers. After conferring with some of the Indian chiefs and sachems, he went up the Delaware River many miles, in an open boat, to the (present) Kensington District of Philadelphia, where he landed.

On a cold day in November, and under the branches of a wide-spreading elm tree, a number of Indian sachems were assembled, with chiefs and women. The later foliage of the elm was just falling. A moderate council-fire was lighted, and then William Penn concluded a treaty with the barbarians—the rightful owners of the soil—for the purchase of the domain which the mon-

arch of England had given to him without a shadow of right. This treaty confirmed former treaties made by his cousin, William Markham.

"We meet," said Penn to the Indians, "on the broad pathway of good faith and good will; no advantage shall be taken on either side, but all shall be openness and love. I will not call you children, for parents sometimes chide their children too severely; nor brothers only, for brothers sometimes differ. The friendship between me and you I will not compare to a chain, for that the rains might rust or a falling tree might break. We are the same as if one man's body was to be divided into two parts—we are all one flesh and blood."

Then Penn gave presents to the chiefs, and they, in turn, presented him with a belt of wampum—an official pledge of their fidelity. With implicit faith in his words, the representatives of the barbarians said:

"We will live in love with William Penn and his children as long as the sun and moon shall endure."

This promise was kept. Not a drop of blood of a Quaker was ever shed by an Indian. It was a sacred covenant of peace and friendship between two races. Penn was then thirty-eight years of age, and most of his companions at the treaty—the deputy-governor and others—were younger than he.

Penn bought land of the Swedes between the Delaware and Schuylkill rivers, and there, immediately after the treaty, he founded the City of Philadelphia—"City of Brotherly Love." He caused streets to be laid out, and their boundaries to be marked on the trunks of trees, several of which still bear the names Chestnut, Walnut, Locust, Spruce, etc.

Penn divided his domain into six counties, and summoned representatives from each to meet him at Philadelphia in March, 1683. They were there at the appointed time—Dutch, Swedes and English. He gave them a "Charter of Liberties." Population was rapidly growing by immigration; and when, in August that year, Penn left for England, there were twenty settled townships and 7,000 inhabitants in Pennsylvania. He left Thomas Lloyd, a Quaker preacher, Governor of the province, with five men as a Council to assist him in the administration of government.

Finally Penn became involved in troubles after the accession of William and Mary to the throne of England, in 1689. Because of his personal regard for King James II., Penn was accused of disaffection to the new Government, and suffered imprisonment and deprivation of his colonial rights for a time. Meanwhile discontents had sprung up in Pennsylvania, and the three lower

counties, now forming the State of Delaware, offended at some action of the Council, seceded (April, 1691), and, with the reluctant consent of Penn, set up a separate Government, with William Markham as chief magistrate.

Penn's colonial Government was taken from him in 1692, and the province was placed under the authority of Governor Fletcher, of New York, when the three revolted counties were reunited with Pennsylvania. All suspicion of his loyalty being removed, Penn's chartered rights were restored to him in 1693; but when, in 1699, he again came to America, he was pained to find discontents rife again. The people were clamorous for greater political privileges.

Late in 1701 Penn gave to his colonists a new charter, far more liberal in its concessions than the former. It was cheerfully accepted by a majority of the people; but those of the three lower counties, evidently aiming at independence, and whose delegates had withdrawn from the provincial Assembly, declined to accept it. Penn acquiesced in their decision and allowed them a distinct Assembly. This first independent Assembly convened at New Castle in 1703. (See *Delaware*.)

The boundaries between Pennsylvania and Maryland and Virginia, on account of the claims of Lord Baltimore and others, continued to be a topic for disputes for many years. The line was finally fixed, in 1767, by Charles Mason and Jeremiah Dixon, English mathematicians, and was ever afterwards known as "Mason and Dixon's Line." In the debates on slavery before the admission of Missouri as a State, John Randolph used the words "Mason and Dixon's Line" as figurative of the division of the two systems of labor.

Members of the Society of Friends had been the chief emigrants to Pennsylvania, until between 1717 and 1725, when there was a heavy influx of Germans and Scotch-Irish families. Penn died in 1718, and his heirs succeeded him as proprietors of the province.

During the French and Indian war, and for ten years preceding it, the colony was much disturbed by apprehensions of the hostility of the Indians against the white people of the province, which the French stimulated. The people vainly endeavored to retain the friendship of the barbarians. The Shawnees were the first to break faith with the colony, the French having secured them as allies. In 1755 and 1756, Western Pennsylvania was the scene of conflicts. In the former year occurred Braddock's disastrous expedition, and other stirring events in which Washington participated. So, also, for two or three years longer, when, in 1758, a treaty with the Indians secured peace until 1763, when Pontiac's war spread alarm throughout the colony.

In 1764 discontents prevailed with the proprietary Government of Pennsylvania, at the head of which was John Penn, a grandson of William Penn. Two strongly opposing parties were formed. The Anti-Proprietary party secured a majority in the Assembly. That body sent Benjamin Franklin to England as their agent, authorized to ask for an abrogation of the proprietary authority and the establishment of a royal Government. The mutterings of the gathering tempest of revolution in the colonies were then growing louder, and nothing more was done in the matter.

The people of Pennsylvania took an active part in movements in favor of American independence. The merchants of Philadelphia signed non-importation agreements, and in 1774 they prevented the landing of tea there. The same year a Convention of the people of Philadelphia took the reins of government; and, though the provincial Assembly continued to meet, no quorum could be obtained. Finally, with an impotent protest, the old Colonial Legislature expired in September.

Pennsylvania was the theatre of some of the most important events which distinguished the old war for independence. In September, 1774, the First Continental Congress assembled at Philadelphia, and a large proportion of the succeeding sessions of that Congress were held there. In that city the resolution and Declaration of Independence was adopted in July, 1776; and there, in 1787, the Constitution of the United States was framed by a Convention over which Washington presided.

Pennsylvania was well represented in the first Continental Congress. On January 23, 1775, a provincial Government was formed at Philadelphia. After the skirmish at Lexington, a committee of safety was appointed; and at a large public meeting on April 24, 1775, measures were taken for forming a volunteer military association, the spirit of which permeated the whole province. Many of the young Quakers took part in the organization, in spite of the remonstrances of their elders. They afterwards formed the society called the "Free Quakers." Thomas Mifflin, afterwards a Major-General, was a leading spirit among them; John Dickinson accepted the command of a regiment; so, also, did Thomas McKean and James Wilson, who were afterwards signers of the Declaration of Independence.

On July 15, 1776, a Convention met at Philadelphia and prepared a State Constitution. It was published on the 28th of September. A large and influential party in the State regarded it as too democratic. In some of the counties its opponents plotted against it, and there was delay in choosing

councillors in whom executive authority was vested. As a result of these machinations, when the Assembly, elected under the Constitution, met on the 28th of November, 1776, they were compelled to adjourn without organizing a Legislature. Committees were afterwards chosen, and the State Government was organized on March 4, 1777, with Thomas Wharton, jr., as President.

Very important military events occurred in Pennsylvania during the war for independence. The notable encampment at Valley Forge; the battles at the Brandywine Creek and at Germantown, and the desolation of the Valley of Wyoming by Tories and Indians, were events within its borders. During the winter of 1777-78 Philadelphia was occupied by the British army, and caused the flight of the Continental Congress from it. Pennsylvania furnished more than its full quota of troops during the war. Slavery was abolished within its borders in 1780.

The National Constitution, framed by a Convention at Philadelphia in the summer of 1787, was ratified by the people of Pennsylvania on December 12, 1787. It was the second State that performed that important act. Its Constitution was revised in 1790, and again in 1837-38. Its capital was removed to Lancaster in 1799, and in 1812 to Harrisburg.

A speck of civil war in Pennsylvania, before that of the Revolution, has been alluded to in the sketch of Connecticut. It is known in history as the "Pennymite war."

The people of Pennsylvania were greatly disturbed by an event known in history as the "Whiskey Insurrection," in 1794. The four counties of the State west of the Alleghany Mountains, had been largely settled by hardy Scotch-Irish, men of energy and decision, and restive under the restraints of law. Being far from markets, they converted their rye crops into whiskey, and in that smaller bulk conveyed it to market.

A new excise act, passed in the spring of 1794, was specially obnoxious to these people, and when officers were sent to enforce the act among them, they were resisted by the people in arms. The insurrection became general throughout all that region. It was stimulated by leading men in the community. Many outrages were committed in the vicinity of Pittsburgh. Buildings were burned, mails were robbed, and government officers were insulted and abused. The local militia formed a part of the armed mob, at one time numbering between six and seven thousand men. The insurgent spirit spread into the neighboring counties of Virginia, and presented alarming aspects to

President Washington, who observed that the leaders in the insurrection were connected with the secret Democratic societies, under the influence of the French Revolution.

The President took prompt measures to suppress the insurrection. He issued a proclamation urging the insurgents to desist, and calling upon the Governors of Pennsylvania, New Jersey, Maryland and Virginia for a body of troops aggregating 13,000 in number, afterwards raised to 16,000. The troops were placed under the command of General Lee, of Virginia.

Before these troops were put in motion, commissioners were sent over the mountains, authorized to arrange for the submission of the insurgents. They found the leaders of the malcontents in convention at Parkinson's Ferry. A tall pole near their meeting place bore the words "Liberty and no Excise! No asylums for cowards and traitors!" They appointed a committee of sixty, who met the commissioners at Pittsburgh, where terms of submission were arranged, to be ratified, however, by a vote of the people. The alacrity with which the President's call for troops was responded to, settled the matter. The insurgents had a wholesome fear of the soldiers, and in October the "Whiskey Insurrection" was ended.

Pennsylvania bore its share of the burdens of the second war for independence, but no hostile forces met on its soil. The capture of Washington City, the attack on Baltimore, in 1814, and the presence of a blockading fleet on the coast, alarmed the citizens of Philadelphia. They cast up some fortifications, in which task, as at New York at about the same time, citizens of every degree gave their personal aid. The enemy did not come.

After the war of 1812-15 the State engaged in vast enterprises of internal improvements which crippled its financial powers for several years. When, in the winter of 1860-61, the Republic was in danger from internal foes, it was mighty in strength. It then possessed about three million inhabitants. Though profoundly moved by the rising tempest of Secession, the people, glowing with patriotic ardor, were, nevertheless, conservative at first. A week before the first Ordinance of Secession was passed there was an immense assemblage of citizens in Independence Square, Philadelphia, called by the Mayor, who said disunion was inevitable unless the people should, "in a special manner, avow their unfailing fidelity to the Union and their abiding faith in the Constitution and Laws." The proceedings were opened by a prayer by the Episcopal bishop of the diocese of Pennsylvania (Alonzo Potter, D.D.), which was followed by highly conservative speeches—rather

more conservative than the general sentiments of the people desired. The resolutions then adopted were condemnatory of the conduct of the people of the North on the subject of slavery, and, in tone, really justified the disloyal movements in the slave-labor States.

These obsequious resolutions aroused the whole State to energetic action in support of the Republic. The address of Governor Curtin to the Legislature, on January 15, 1861, was a foreshadowing of the loyalty and energy which he and the people displayed throughout the war. The Legislature approved the course of Major Anderson at Fort Sumter, and commended Governor Hicks of Maryland. It pledged "the faith and honor of Pennsylvania" in support of the National Government, and its efforts to sustain its authority. By its loyal Governor and Legislature, Pennsylvania was placed squarely as a staunch supporter of the National Government, and it fully redeemed all its pledges.

Pennsylvania has the honor of having sent the first troops to the National capital for its defense, in April, 1861. They comprised five companies from the interior of the State. They went without arms (for expected new muskets were not ready) under an escort of forty regular soldiers. They found Maryland a hostile territory to pass through. The people of Washington hailed them as deliverers, for they were alarmed by rumors that men from Maryland and Virginia were about to seize the capital. The Pennsylvanians undoubtedly saved the City of Washington from capture at that time.

During the war Pennsylvania was invaded by Confederate armies, and on its soil, at Gettysburg, one of the two decisive battles of the war was fought. At the beginning of the conflict the State raised a large body of reserve troops, and it furnished to the National army 357,284 soldiers.

Pennsylvania is pre-eminently a manufacturing State, especially in iron and steel. The value of the products of these industries for 1880 was \$145,576,268, being nearly five times that of any other State. It has a monopoly of anthracite coal, besides vast fields of bituminous coal. About 20,000,000 tons of anthracite are annually sent to market; and it furnished, in 1880, about 6,000,000 tons of bituminous coal. It also yields a vast amount of petroleum. In 1882 Pennsylvania had 6700 miles of railway within its borders, which cost \$485,424,686. It is also a large importing and exporting State.

Pennsylvania has ample provisions for the instruction of its children. In 1880 the number enrolled in its public schools was 950,300, with an average

daily attendance of 622,351. Its aggregate expenditure for public schools that year was \$7,306,692. There are twenty-seven colleges and universities in the State, with many normal schools, academies and seminaries for girls.. It was early named "The Keystone State," because of its central position in the group of the thirteen original States—like the keystone of an arch.

There are several large cities in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. The largest two are Philadelphia and Pittsburg. The former had, in 1880, 847,170 inhabitants, and the latter 156,389. Harrisburg, its capital, had 30,762.



VERMONT.

(1724.)



VERMONT is one of the New England States, but not one of the original thirteen that formed the American Union. It lies between latitude $42^{\circ} 44'$ and 45° north, and $70^{\circ} 30'$ and $73^{\circ} 26'$ west longitude. On the north it joins the Province of Quebec, of the Dominion of Canada; on the east lies New Hampshire; on the south, Massachusetts, and on the west, New York. The State embraces an area of 9,565 square miles, and had a population in 1880 of 332,286, of whom 1,063 were colored.

The face of Vermont is greatly diversified by hills and valleys. It is divided into two unequal parts by the Green Mountains, which extend through the whole length of the State from north to south. These mountains are among the most picturesque in the Union. They present four peaks, which are over 3,000 feet in height. Mount Mansfield rises to an altitude of 4,360 feet above the sea level.

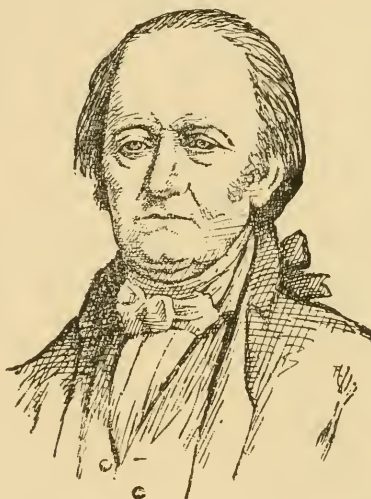
Lake Champlain lies on its western border, and the Connecticut River forms its eastern boundary. Between the lake and the Green Mountain ranges is a beautiful and fertile rolling country, well watered by many streams. It has nearly one hundred smaller lakes and ponds. Its winters are cold and long; the summers are short and quite hot; but there are few portions of the United States blessed with such a healthful climate.

Vermont was discovered by Samuel Champlain in 1609, but no settlement was attempted within its borders until 1724. It was the battle-ground between the Algonquin tribes, in the region of the St. Lawrence River, and the Iroquois, or Five Nations, in the 16th century. It was while Champlain was with a party of the former that he discovered the beautiful lake that bears his name.

From 1720 to 1725 a very distressing war was carried on between the eastern Indians and the New England Colonies; while the French in Canada

stimulated the barbarians over whom they exercised control, to hostilities against the English. It was during that war (in 1724) that some people from Massachusetts built Fort Dummer, near the site of (present) Brattleborough in Vermont, and planted a little colony—the seed of the Commonwealth.

Soon after the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, settlements in New Hampshire began to extend westward of the Connecticut River, and Benning Wentworth, the Governor of New Hampshire, began to make grants of land to settlers in the region between the Connecticut and Lake Champlain. These settlers were undisturbed in their possessions until 1764, when the British monarch, by an Order in Council, placed their territory under the



THOMAS CHITTENDEN, FIRST GOVERNOR OF VERMONT.

jurisdiction of New York, that province claiming, by virtue of the charter to the Duke of York, the Connecticut River as its eastern boundary. A mild dispute then arose.

New York having relinquished its claims so far east as against Massachusetts, it was then not seriously insisted on; and the settlers believed that while there was a change in territorial authority, to which they were indifferent, the titles to the lands would not be questioned. They were mistaken. The Governor of New York soon notified them that their grants were illegal and void, and they were ordered to surrender their charters and repurchase their lands from the New York authorities.

The settlers were disposed to be quiet, loyal subjects of New York, but this act of injustice converted them into rebellious foes, determined and de-

fiant. They resisted, and were backed by the sympathies of the people of New Hampshire—aye, of all New England. They preferred to defend their rights even at the expense of their blood rather than submit to such injustice. Foremost among those who took this attitude was Ethan Allen, who became the leader in the border forays and irritating movements that ensued.

The Governor and Council of New York summoned all the claimants under the New Hampshire grants to appear before them at Albany, with their evidence of possession, within three months, failing in which it was declared that the claims of all delinquents should be rejected. To this requisition the people of the grants paid no attention.

Meanwhile New York speculators had been purchasing from New York large tracts of these estates in the disputed territory, and were making preparations to take possession. The people of the grants sent one of their number to England, who laid their cause before the King. He came back in August, 1767, armed with an order for the Governor of New York to abstain from issuing any more patents for lands eastward of Lake Champlain. But, as the order was not *ex post facto* in its operations, the New York patentees proceeded to take possession of their purchased lands. This speedily brought on a crisis, and for seven years the New Hampshire grants formed a theatre where all the elements of civil war, excepting actual carnage, were in active exercise.

When, late in 1771, Governor Tryon, of New York, by proclamation, offered a reward of £20 each for the apprehension of Ethan Allen, Remember Baker and Robert Cochran for their "riotous opposition" to New York, these leaders of the "Green Mountain Boys," as they were called, issued the following counter-proclamation:

"£25 REWARD.

"*Whereas*, James Duane and John Kemp, of New York, have, by their menaces and threats, greatly disturbed the public peace and repose of the honest peasants of Bennington and the settlements to the northward, which peasants are now and ever have been in the peace of God and the King, and are patriotic and liege subjects of George III. Any person who shall apprehend these common disturbers, *viz.*, James Duane and John Kemp, and bring them to landlord Fay's at Bennington, shall have £15 reward for James Duane and \$10 for John Kemp, paid by

"ETHAN ALLEN,
"REMEMBER BAKER,
"ROBERT COCHRAN."

"Dated, Poultney, Feb. 5, 1772."

The controversy between New York and the New Hampshire Grants paused at the beginning of the old war for independence, but the spirit of liberty among the settlers east of Lake Champlain, continued conspicuously all through the period of the war. They had assumed a provisional independent political organization, and, in 1776, they petitioned the Continental Congress to admit them into the Union as such. New York so vehemently opposed their pretensions that their suit was rejected. And there was hesitation about accepting the services of Ethan Allen and his followers (who had captured Fort Ticonderoga in 1775) in the Continental army.

A Convention held at Westminster on January 15, 1777, declared "that the district and territory comprehending and usually known by the name and description of the New Hampshire Grants, of right ought to be and is declared forever hereafter to be a free and independent jurisdiction or State, to be forever hereafter called, known and distinguished by the name of New Connecticut or Vermont."

New York used all its influence to prevent Congress from recognizing the independence of Vermont, and succeeded for a while. Meanwhile the Convention that declared its independence, met at Windsor on the first Wednesday in June, and appointed a committee to draft a State Constitution. It was done, and in July it was adopted. A State Government was organized, with Thomas Chittenden as Governor, and the first Legislature met at Windsor on March 12, 1778.

The Legislature of Vermont demanded of Congress its separation from the other States and its admission into the Union, upon a basis of perfect equality. Disputes ran high, and at one time, in 1779, the claims of New York by jurisdiction over territory in Vermont almost produced civil war. At this juncture a question of greater magnitude than these local disputes presented itself. The British authorities in Canada had eagerly watched the progress of the Grants with great interest, and now entertained hopes that Vermont would be so far alienated from the "rebel" cause by the opposition of New York and the injustice of Congress, as to be induced to return to its allegiance to the British crown. Accordingly, in the spring of 1780, Colonel Beverley Robinson wrote to Ethan Allen from New York, making overtures to that effect. The letter was delivered to Allen in the street at Arlington by a man disguised as a farmer. To this, and another letter written by Robinson in February, 1781, Allen made no reply; but early in March he sent the letter to Congress, with one from himself in these words:

"I am as resolutely determined to defend the independence of Vermont as Congress is that of the United States, and rather than fail, I will retire with the hardy Green Mountain Boys into the desolate caverns of the mountains, and wage war with human nature at large."

The shrewd Allen, Governor Chittenden, and other leaders, saw their advantage, and used it for the benefit of their new State.

Meanwhile some British scouting parties had captured some Vermonters, and Ira, a brother of Ethan Allen, was sent to negotiate with a British officer (Colonel Dundas) for an exchange of prisoners. Under the direction of the commanding officer in Canada, Colonel Dundas made to Allen verbal overtures similar to the written ones of Colonel Robinson to Ethan. They were received with apparent favor. The British authorities were delighted with their skill in diplomacy, and readily acceded to Allen's proposition not to allow hostilities on the Vermont frontier until after the next session of the Legislature. Thus the British forces, about ten thousand strong, were kept inactive, and Vermont was spared the infliction of their presence.

Vague rumors of these matters got abroad, and the authorities of New York, and also Congress, were alarmed. General Schuyler wrote to Governor Clinton—"The conduct of some people at the eastward is alarmingly mysterious. A flag, under pretense of settling a contest with Vermont, has been on the Grants. Allen has disbanded his militia. . . . Entreat General Washington for more Continental troops, and let me beg of your Excellency to hasten up here"—from Poughkeepsie.

The coquetry of the Vermont leaders with the British continued until the peace in 1783, when dissimulation was no longer necessary. The shrewd Vermont diplomatists had been working for a twofold object, namely: to keep the British troops from their territory, and to induce Congress to admit the independent State into the Union. They outwitted the Britons, hoodwinked Congress, and finally gained their point.

The difficulties were not settled until some years afterwards. Finally the Legislature of New York appointed commissioners, late in 1789, to settle all matters in controversy. It was agreed that the State of Vermont should pay to New York \$30,000 in settlement of claims by citizens of the latter Commonwealth, for compensation for the land which had been granted them from Vermont. All other matters were amicably adjusted, and in the spring of 1791 Vermont took its place as an independent member of the Republic.

Vermont, like other New England States, was opposed to the war of

1812; but the Legislature, in the fall of that year, resolved as follows: "We pledge ourselves to each other, and to our Government, that with our individual exertions, our examples and influence, we will support our Government and country in the present contest; and rely on the Great Arbiter of events for a favorable result."

There was vehement opposition to this declaration. In the elections in the fall of 1813 the Federalists gained the ascendancy, and chose Martin Chittenden, Governor. Party spirit was wrought up to the highest pitch. The Governor refused to call out the militia, and forbade troops to leave the State. A brigade of Vermont militia, which had been drafted into the service of the United States and marched to Plattsburgh, in 1813, were discharged from service by a proclamation from the Governor, and ordered to return to the State. Their officers refused obedience, and sent a written protest against the order. Vermont volunteers, however, took an active part in the battle at Plattsburgh in September, 1814.

During the troubles in Canada in 1837-38, sympathizing Vermonters to the number of fully six hundred crossed the line to help the insurgents, but they were soon disbanded by the authorities of the United States.

Vermont took an active part in the civil and military events of the late Civil War. It furnished to the National army 35,256 troops. A party of Confederates from Canada made a descent upon the town of St. Albans, near the frontier. They robbed the bank of \$211,152, and committed some other depredations. They were pursued by a party of citizens, and were finally all captured by them or by the Canadian authorities.

In spite of a rather sterile soil, Vermont yields annually large crops of cereals; also a large amount of wool, its mountain slopes, where not covered by trees, yielding rich pastures. In 1880 it had about 500,000 sheep. Its yield of maple sugar made it at one time the second sugar-producing State in the Union.

The manufactures of Vermont are important. In 1880 there were 2,874 manufacturing establishments, employing \$23,265,224 of capital, and producing goods to the value of \$31,354,366. There were 916 miles of railway in operation within the State, which cost over \$42,000,000.

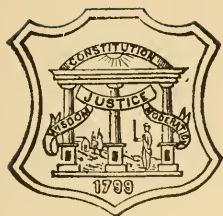
Ample provision is made for the education of the children of the State. In 1880 the number of children enrolled in its public schools was 73,237, with an average daily attendance of 47,200. It has three colleges and several normal schools.

Vermont has no large city. The largest is Burlington, on the shore of Lake Champlain. Its population in 1880 was 11,365. Montpelier, its capital, had only 1847 inhabitants. The name of the State is derived from the verdure that covers its loftiest hills, and its pseudonym is "The Green Mountain State."



GEORGIA.

(1733.)



GEORGIA was the latest settled of the thirteen original States of the Union. It is one of the South Atlantic States, lying between latitude $30^{\circ} 20'$ and 35° north, and longitude $80^{\circ} 48'$ and $85^{\circ} 38'$ west. Georgia embraces an area of 59,475 square miles, and ranked, by the census of 1880, thirteen among the States of the Union in population, which then numbered 1,542,180. Of this number 725,274, including 124 Indians, were colored, or a trifle over one half.

Tennessee and North Carolina are the neighbors of Georgia on the north; on the east is South Carolina and the Atlantic Ocean; on the south is Florida, and on the west are Florida and Alabama.

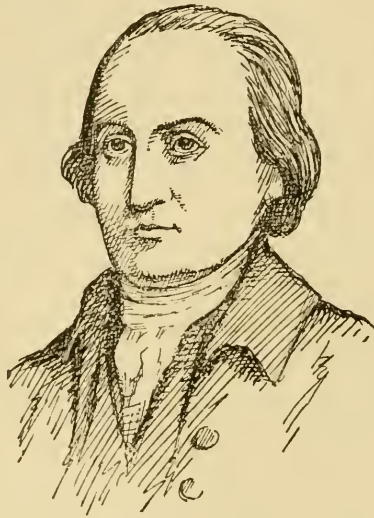
The surface of Georgia is flat, and abounding in marshes, for about one hundred miles inland. There rice is extensively cultivated. The centre of the State presents a fine, rolling country, while its northern and north-western region is traversed by ranges of the Blue Ridge Mountains, which rise in one instance to an altitude of 4,000 feet above the sea. The mountain district comprises twenty-five counties. The Savannah River divides the State from South Carolina. It is navigable to Augusta, 230 miles from the sea. There are several navigable rivers in the State for small craft. Steamers go up the Chattahoochee River, at certain seasons of the year, to Columbus, 350 miles from its mouth. It washes the western border of the State.

Georgia was originally a part of the domain of the Carolinas. When, in 1729, the Carolinas were surrendered to the Crown, the whole country southward of the Savannah River was a wilderness to the vicinity of St. Augustine in Florida, peopled by native tribes and claimed by the Spaniards as a part of Florida. The English disputed this claim, and war-clouds appeared.

It was at this juncture that Colonel James Oglethorpe, an accomplished soldier, who had been an aide to Prince Eugene in a campaign against the Turks, and then a member of Parliament, commiserating the wretched condi-

tion of prisoners for debt, in England, brought the matter before the Legislature. He proposed the founding of a colony in America, partly for the benefit of this important class. A committee of inquiry reported favorably, and a plan, as proposed by Oglethorpe, was approved by King George II. A royal charter was obtained (June 9, 1732) for a corporation for twenty-one years, "in trust for the poor," to establish a colony in the territory south of the Savannah River, to be called Georgia, in honor of the King.

The management of the new settlement was intrusted to twenty-one "gentlemen and noblemen," who were constituted "Trustees for Settling and Establishing the Colony of Georgia." Colonel Oglethorpe was one of them.



GEORGE WALTON, FIRST GOVERNOR OF GEORGIA.

They were invested with legislative and executive powers for the government of the colony. At the expiration of the twenty-one years a permanent Government was to be established by the King or his successor. There was no political liberty for the people.

Every feature of the project commended itself to the British people. Donations from all ranks and classes were freely given to assist the emigrants in planting comfortable homes in the wilderness. The Bank of England made a generous gift, and the House of Commons, from time to time, voted money, amounting in the aggregate to \$160,000. Lord Viscount Percival was chosen President of the Trustees.

Colonel Oglethorpe generously offered to accompany the emigrants to

their new home. All things being in readiness, thirty-five families—120 men, women and children—sailed from Gravesend in the ship *Anne*, of 200 tons burden, on November 6, 1732. Rev. Mr. Shubert, of the Church of England, accompanied them as their spiritual guide, also a few Piedmontese silk-workers—for one object of the trustees was the growing of silk in Georgia.

After a passage of fifty-seven days the *Anne* touched at Charleston, and gave great joy to the inhabitants, for they felt that a barrier was to be placed between them and the Indians and Spaniards. Landing a large portion of the immigrants on Port Royal Island, Governor Oglethorpe proceeded to the Savannah River with the remainder. Sailing up that stream about ten miles to Yamacraw Bluff, he laid the foundation of the future State of Georgia, at the site of (present) Savannah, in the spring of 1733. The rest of the immigrants soon joined him. They built a fort and named the place Savannah.

There Oglethorpe held a friendly conference with Creek Indians settled near, with Mary Musgrove, a half breed who could speak English, as interpreter. Their venerable chief, To-mo-chi-chi, then ninety-one years of age, gave the immigrants a warm welcome, and became their fast friend.

Within eight years 2,500 immigrants were sent over from England, at an expense of \$400,000. The condition on which the lands were parcelled out was military duty; and so grievous were the restrictions that many colonists went into South Carolina, where they could procure land in fee. The colony quite rapidly increased, immigrants coming from Scotland and Germany.

In 1734 Oglethorpe went to England, and returned in 1736 with 300 immigrants, among them 150 Highlanders skilled in military affairs, with several cannons. John Wesley, the founder of Methodism, and his brother Charles, were among them. They came to preach the Gospel among the settlers and surrounding barbarians. Moravians also came to Georgia with Oglethorpe and his soldiers. They were soon followed by George Whitefield, who was destined to make a great stir in the colonies as an evangelist. With his Highlanders and his cannons, Oglethorpe felt confident that he could defend his colony against all intruders. A test was soon presented.

The Spaniards at St. Augustine were jealous of the thriving English colony, and showed signs of hostility soon after Oglethorpe's return. The Governor prepared for expected trouble by building some forts in the direction of the Castilian stronghold. He went to several of the coast islands and made preparations for defensive works. On St. Simon's island he erected a fort and founded Frederica. He planned a little military work on a small

island at the entrance of the St. Johns River, which he named Fort George. He also founded Augusta, far up the Savannah River, and built a stockade there as a defense against Indians who might come from the west.

These hostile preparations caused the Spanish at St. Augustine to threaten war. Creek tribes offered to help Oglethorpe. Through a commission the Spaniards demanded the evacuation of all Georgia and a portion of South Carolina by the English. Oglethorpe hastened to England to confer with the trustees and seek military strength. He returned in the autumn of 1738, with a commission of Brigadier-general, and entrusted with the chief command of all the troops in South Carolina and Georgia.

War between England and Spain broke out in 1739. St. Augustine was strengthened. Oglethorpe resolved to strike a blow before the Spaniards should be prepared for it. He invaded Florida with a thousand white men and some Indians, but soon returned without achieving anything of much importance.

In 1742 the Spaniards retaliated. With a fleet of thirty-six vessels from Cuba, and a land force three thousand strong, they entered the harbor of St. Simon's, in July, preparatory to seizing Georgia and South Carolina. Oglethorpe, always vigilant, had forewarnings of this expedition, and he was on the island of St. Simon's before the Spaniards arrived, but with less than one thousand men, for South Carolina had failed to send promised men and supplies. The task of defending both provinces, therefore, fell upon the Georgians. Oglethorpe had a few vessels.

When the Spanish vessels passed the English batteries, Oglethorpe saw that resistance would be futile, so he ordered his little squadron to run up to Frederica, while he spiked the guns on St. Simon's, fell back with his troops, and waited for the Carolinians. He finally proceeded to make a night attack upon the Spaniards on the island. A Frenchman in his ranks, when they approached the enemy, ran ahead, fired his musket, deserted to the enemy, and aroused them to resistance. Oglethorpe fell back to Frederica. He sent a letter addressed to the Frenchman as a spy in the Spanish camp, directing him to represent the Georgians as very weak in numbers, and to advise the Castilians to attack them at once; but if they could not do so, to try and persuade them to remain a few days longer at St. Simon's, for within that time a British fleet would arrive with a thousand land troops to attack St. Augustine.

This letter fell into the hands of the Spanish commander, who afterwards

hanged the Frenchman as a spy. A council of war was held. While it was in session vessels from Carolina seen at sea were mistaken for the expected British fleet, and the Spaniards determined to attack Oglethorpe at once, and then hasten to the defense of St. Augustine. They advanced towards Frederica along a narrow defile, flanked by a forest and a morass, when they were assailed by the Georgians lying in ambush, who slew or made prisoners nearly the whole of the advanced division. A second division shared their fate. The Spaniards retreated in confusion, and fled to their ships. Oglethorpe had punished the deserter, outgeneralled his enemy and saved Georgia and South Carolina from utter ruin.

Slavery in the colony of Georgia was prohibited, and the people murmured. Many settlements were abandoned for want of tillers of the soil. Finally, the restrictions concerning slavery were adroitly removed by allowing the colonists to contract for the services of negro laborers for ninety-nine years. In 1752 the trustees surrendered the colony to the Crown, and Georgia became a royal province, with political privileges similar to that of others.

In 1755 a General Assembly was established; and in 1763 all the lands between the rivers Savannah and St. Mary were annexed to Georgia. The colony prospered.

In the political disputes with Great Britain, previous to the war of the Revolution, the people of Georgia sympathized with their northern brethren, and bore a conspicuous part in the armed struggle which ensued. It was not represented in the First Continental Congress (1774), but a Provincial Congress assembled on July 4, 1775, adopted the "American Association" authorized by that body. Thenceforward Georgia stood shoulder to shoulder, in the great strife, with its sister colonies and States in the council and in the field.

Royal power ceased in Georgia early in 1776. Sir James Wright, who had ruled the province wisely as Governor since 1764, was a warm loyalist, though born in South Carolina. His influence kept down open resistance for some time. In January, 1774, the patriots arrested him, but set him free on parole. He violated it. On a stormy night in February he escaped to an armed British ship below Savannah, and so abdicated. A State Constitution was framed in 1777, a second one in 1785, and a third in 1798. Under the latter (occasionally amended) the State thrived until the Civil War (1861-65). George Walton, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, was, elected the first Governor of Georgia, in 1779.

In 1779 General Lincoln was sent to Georgia to defend the State against

British invasion. General Prevost, in command in East Florida, had joined a British force lately arrived (January) at Savannah, under Lieutenant-colonel Campbell. Prevost sent Campbell up the Savannah River. He took Augusta. South Carolina was menaced with invasion. Lincoln was at Charleston with less than 1,500 troops. He hastened to the protection of the fords of the Savannah. He crossed the river into Georgia, and in a battle at Brier Creek his troops were defeated and dispersed. The British now held possession of all Georgia, and Savannah became their headquarters in the South.

In the fall of 1779 the British, strongly entrenched at Savannah, were besieged by the Americans under Lincoln, and a French land and naval force. The latter deserted the Americans just as victory seemed certain, and Lincoln retired to Charleston. The British held possession of Georgia until the close of the war,

On June 2, 1788, the people of Georgia ratified the National Constitution. The settlers on its western frontier suffered much from incursions of the Creek Indians. These incursions were ended by treaties of friendship in 1790-91. In 1802 the Creeks ceded to the United States a large tract of land which was afterwards assigned to Georgia, and now forms the south-western counties of the State. The same year Georgia ceded all its claims to lands westward of its present boundaries. Difficulties finally arose between the State and National Governments respecting the Cherokees. On the removal of the latter to the country west of the Mississippi, in 1838, Georgia came into possession of all their lands.

The political leaders in Georgia were among the most zealous and persistent advocates of Secession in 1860. Foremost among them were Robert Toombs and Howell Cobb, the latter then Secretary of the Treasury in President Buchanan's cabinet. A majority of the people of the State were opposed to Secession, but could not effectually restrain the Secessionists.

Early in January, 1861, elections were held for members of a Convention to consider the subject of Secession. Alexander H. Stephens, the ablest statesman in Georgia, though believing in the *right* of the State to secede, opposed the measure as unnecessary and full of danger to the public welfare. Mr. Toombs, a popular leader, by impassioned harangues, circulars and telegraphic despatches, carried masses of the more unthinking people with him. He was one of the most active of the enemies of the Republic at that time, in and out of Congress, and worked persistently to precipitate his State into revolution, and succeeded.

The Convention assembled at Milledgeville, the capital of the State, on January 16. A decided majority of the 295 members present were opposed to Secession. But that majority was speedily changed. On the 18th a resolution was passed by a vote of 165 against 130, declaring it to be the right and the duty of the State to withdraw from the Union. A committee was appointed to draft an ordinance of Secession. It was reported on the same day. It was very short—a single paragraph—and simply declared the repeal and abrogation of all laws which bound the Commonwealth to the Union, and that the State of Georgia was in “full possession and exercise of all the rights of sovereignty which belong and appertain to a free and independent State.”

This ordinance elicited many warm expressions of Union sentiments. Mr. Stephens made a powerful speech in favor of the Union, and he and his brother voted against the ordinance. But, unlike Henry Clay, who on one occasion in Congress said, “If Kentucky to-morrow unfurls the banner of resistance [to the Union] I will never fight under that banner. I owe a paramount allegiance to the whole Union, a subordinate one to my own State,” Mr. Stephens, when the ordinance was adopted by a vote of 208 against 89 (January 19, 1861), arose and declared his intention to go with his State. He afterwards became Vice-President of the Southern Confederacy, of which Jefferson Davis was chosen President, and was one of the most urgent advocates of the seizure of the National capital.

A resolution to submit the ordinance of Secession to the people for ratification or rejection was lost by a large majority. Not one of the Secession ordinances of the seven States wherein such action was taken was ever allowed to go before the people for their consideration.

At this point in the proceedings, a copy of the resolutions of the State of New York (see *New York*), tendering to the President all of the available forces of the State to stay the rising tempest of revolution, was received, and produced much excitement. Mr. Toombs immediately offered the following resolution, which was adopted unanimously:

“As a response to the resolution of New York, this Convention highly approve of the energetic and patriotic conduct of the Governor of Georgia in taking possession of Fort Pulaski by Georgia troops, and request him to hold possession until the relations of Georgia with the Federal Government be determined by this Convention; and that a copy of this resolution be ordered to be transmitted to the Governor of New York.” The Convention chose delegates to the proposed General Convention at Montgomery, in Alabama.

The Governor of Georgia had ordered the seizure of all property of the United States within its borders. In the four years' war that ensued, the State suffered much. The war made havoc on its coasts and in the interior. General Sherman swept through it from Atlanta to the sea at near the close of 1864, "living off the country." Within its borders the President of the Confederacy was captured, and taken to Fortress Monroe a state prisoner, in the spring of 1865.

In June, 1865, a provisional Governor was appointed for Georgia. A Convention held at Milledgeville, late in October, repealed the Ordinance of Secession, declared the war debt void, amended the Constitution so as to abolish slavery, and in November the people elected a Governor, Legislature and members of Congress. That body did not approve these measures, and the Senators and Representatives were not admitted to seats.

In 1867 Georgia, with Florida, was constituted a military district, and placed under military rule. In March, 1868, a Convention held at Atlanta framed a satisfactory Constitution, which was ratified in April by a majority of nearly 18,000 votes. On June 25 following, Congress by act, provided for the re-admission of Georgia, with other States, upon their ratification of the Fourteenth amendment to the National Constitution.

Owing to a violation of the so-called "Reconstruction Act," in not permitting colored men, legally elected, to occupy seats in the Legislature, Georgia representatives were not permitted to take seats in Congress. The Supreme Court of the State decided that negroes were entitled to hold office. A new election was held, and on January 31, 1869, the State Legislature was duly organized. All the requirements of Congress were acceded to, and by an act of that body, on July 15, Georgia was fully re-admitted to the Union on an equality with the other States. Its delegates took their seats in Congress in December, 1869.

The soil of the alluvial lands of Georgia is very rich. Its chief agricultural products are cotton and maize, or Indian corn. The cotton crop in 1880 was 814,441 bales, and its yield of Indian corn was 23,202,018 bushels. Its other cereal products were large. It yielded 25,369,687 pounds of rice.

Georgia is becoming a largely manufacturing State, especially of wood products from its unrivalled forests of yellow pine. It is increasing in its manufacture of textile fabrics, especially of cotton goods. In 1880 it had forty cotton mills. Its manufactures of iron, steel and woollen goods are quite extensive. The products of all its manufactures, in 1880, aggregated in

value \$36,440,948, of which \$6,481,894 were from cotton goods. There were, in 1880, 2673 miles of railroads in operation within the State. The assessed valuations of real and personal estate in Georgia at that time was \$239,472,599, the true valuation being estimated at \$313,067,293.

Georgia has provided well for the education of its children. In 1880 there were 226,627 out of 433,444, of school age, enrolled in its public schools, but the average daily attendance was only 132,000. There were 34,000 in private schools. There are seven universities and colleges in the State.

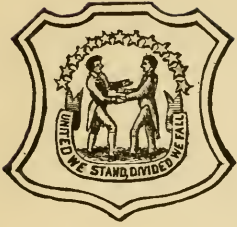
The largest city in Georgia is Atlanta, its capital, which contained, in 1880, 37,409 inhabitants. Its population is rapidly increasing. Savannah had 30,709, and Augusta 21,891.

The sobriquet of "The Empire State of the South" has been given to Georgia.



KENTUCKY.

(1775.)



ONE of the Central States of the Valley of the Mississippi is Kentucky, which embraces an area of 40,400 square miles, and a population, in 1880, of 1,648,690, of whom 271,511, including fifty Indians, were colored. It lies between latitude $36^{\circ} 30'$ and $39^{\circ} 6'$ north, and longitude $82^{\circ} 3'$ and $89^{\circ} 26'$ west. North and north-west of it are the States of Ohio, Indiana and Illinois, from which it is separated by the Ohio River. On the east are Virginia and West Virginia, on the south is Tennessee, and on its extreme south-western border is the Mississippi River, that separates it for about fifty miles from Missouri. It is extremely irregular in shape.

The surface of Kentucky presents two special aspects—a mountain district and table land. The former is in the east and south-east part of the State, and covers about 4000 square miles. The Cumberland Mountains separate it from Virginia. None of the ridges are very lofty—not one exceeds 3000 feet. The two larger tributaries of the Ohio River—the Cumberland and the Tennessee—have their ultimate sources in the mountain districts of Kentucky. The whole State presents a beautiful and picturesque aspect.

It is not known that the foot of any Anglo-Saxon trod the soil of Kaintuck-ee, as the Indians called the beautiful river that flows through portions of the State which bears its name, before the middle of the 18th century, when the pale-faced pioneer went there. It was the favorite hunting ground of dusky tribes of men, who were disposed to dispute his right to intrude upon their domain. They were not the original occupants of the soil, for indications exist which point to a race of higher civilization, who were dwellers there a thousand years ago.

The earliest white visitors to the territory of Kentucky, who made a part of its early history, were Daniel Boone and his companions, who hunted and explored its wilds as early as 1769. Dr Walker was in the north-eastern part

of Kentucky nine or ten years before, and John Finley, a backwoodsman, had made quite extensive explorations in 1767.

Boone was a famous hunter from his early youth. At the age of nineteen years he accompanied his family to western North Carolina, from their home in Pennsylvania. There he married Rebecca Bryan soon afterward. Hunting was his pastime and his pursuit. After the French lost their influence over the Cherokee Indians on the frontiers of North Carolina and Virginia, professional hunters of Pennsylvania and Virginia, hearing of the fine hunting grounds west of the mountains, went thither.

In March, 1769, Boone led one of these hunting parties—five congenial spirits—into Kentucky. “I resigned my domestic happiness, for a time,” he



ISAAC SHELBY, FIRST GOVERNOR OF KENTUCKY.

said, “and left my family and peaceable habitation on the Yadkin River, in North Carolina, to wander through the wildernesses of America in quest of the country of Kentucky.” His loving wife had consented to the undertaking. He was then thirty-four years of age, and had sons old enough to till the little farm on which they dwelt.

The hunters and explorers soon saw the beautiful land of Kentucky from a mountain summit, on the 6th of June. They caught glimpses of the Kentucky River, coursing through the rolling country. There they hunted the deer and the buffalo, with which the country abounded. They saw no other human beings but themselves until December. The Shawnees had lived and roamed in that region, but the Cherokees claimed it as their own hunting ground.

Early in 1770 Boone and his companion were joined by his brother and another hunter. They gathered much peltry. Boone and his brother remained in the wilderness, while the others returned. Daniel was captured by Indians, but escaped. Having fixed on a place to plant a settlement, the brothers returned home in the spring of 1771.

In the autumn of 1773 Boone and his brother returned to Kentucky. They had some fights with Indians, and in 1775 they built a fort of log-houses and stockades at the site of (present) Boonesborough, on the Kentucky River, in Madison County, about eighteen miles south-east of Lexington. There, in September, Boone's wife and daughters joined him, and other families soon came.

Other parties of hunters, explorers, and surveyors had followed the Boones. In 1774 James Harrod erected a log-cabin on the site of (present) Harrodsburgh, and the place rapidly grew into a station, probably the oldest in Kentucky. During the same year Colonel Richard Henderson purchased from the Cherokee Indians all of Kentucky south of the Kentucky River. He employed Daniel Boone to survey the country, and select suitable positions for "stations" or settlements. Henderson had roseate dreams of manorial possessions and privileges, and named his domain "Transylvania." The Legislature of Virginia subsequently declared his purchase null and void, for it claimed the sole right to buy lands from the Indians within the bounds of its royal charter.

In the summer of 1776 three young women of Boonesborough, one of them a daughter of Daniel Boone, were captured by Indians, but were recovered forty-five miles from their home after a desperate encounter with the barbarians. To such dangers the hardy settlers were long exposed.

In the winter of 1776-77 the Legislature of Virginia formed Kentucky into a territory of that Commonwealth. The first court was held at Harrodsburgh in the spring of 1777. It had just adjourned when the infant State was smitten by an Indian invasion. Harrodsburgh, Boonesborough, and other stations were furiously attacked, and the hunters and surveyors were driven within the stockade from the forest. The invasion lasted several weeks, but the barbarians were slowly driven back toward the Ohio. The settlers were re-enforced during the summer by forty-five men from North Carolina, and in September by one hundred men from Virginia.

In the spring of 1778 Boone and a party engaged in making salt at the Lower Blue Licks were captured by Indians and Canadians, and carried to

Detroit, where they were delivered to the English commandant. Boone was reserved by the Indians and taken to Chillicothe, where he saw a large body of barbarians prepared for a descent upon Boonesborough. He managed to escape and give the alarm among all the settlements in Kentucky in time for them to make preparations for the attack. His escape disconcerted the enterprise, and the barbarians did not invade Kentucky.

During the whole period of the old war for independence the settlements in Kentucky were continually menaced with destruction by the Indians from the northward, incited by the British at Detroit. The brave and skillful Colonel George Rogers Clarke became their effectual shield. He had been in Kentucky in 1775, when he took temporary command of the armed settlers there. In 1778 he captured a region bordering on the Mississippi, which was organized into Illinois county under the jurisdiction of Virginia. He inspired the Indians and the British at Detroit with such wholesome fear, that the infant republic south of the Ohio River was spared from ruin.

At the close of the Revolution the settlers in Kentucky desired the independence of home rule. Conventions held at Danville in 1784-85 recommended a peaceable and constitutional separation from Virginia. In compliance with these desires, the Legislature of Virginia passed an act for such separation in January, 1786. Its terms required another Convention at Danville, to determine whether they were acceptable to the people, and, if so, for the Kentuckians to fix upon a day when the authority of Virginia should cease within their domain.

The population had now greatly increased. The people generally acquiesced in the terms of separation proposed by Virginia, and yet there were many signs of discontent, and long delays occurred. The retention of the British posts in the north-west after the war for independence had ceased, allowed the British in that region to continue to incite the Indians to hostilities, while the States in the East were enjoying the tranquillity of peace. The National Government appeared utterly unable to defend Kentucky from Indian forays.

The Kentuckians had no Government at home, and their rulers beyond the mountains could not or would not protect them. Added to this cause of discontent, Congress had bartered away the right to navigate the Mississippi River.

Here was a field for the work of intriguers. Colonel (afterward General) James Wilkinson, of the Revolution, was a resident of Kentucky, and was a

candidate for a seat in Convention at Danville as a representative of Fayette county. In that canvass he boldly advocated secession from the Union. He counselled an immediate declaration of independence, as the exigencies of the country, he said, would not allow them to wait. He was the first public man who gave utterance to such sentiments. There were earnest opposers of his views everywhere, and so loudly was he condemned that he was compelled to greatly modify his utterances. He was elected by only a few majority.

The Legislature of Virginia was induced by existing circumstances to revise its act. Another Convention was held at Danville, in September, 1787, when the time for the authority of Virginia in Kentucky to cease was fixed at January 1, 1789. Up to that time no newspaper had been published in Kentucky.

There were now other causes of delay in the drama of the fate of Kentucky, and the public were much excited, especially by a refusal of Congress to admit the territory into the Union. But the people were patriotic, and would not listen with patience to the illegal schemes advocated by Wilkinson. Other conventions were held.

Meanwhile the National Government had gone into operation under the new Constitution, with Washington as President of the Republic. Protection to the Kentuckians was promptly furnished. In July, 1790, an eighth Convention accepted the Virginia act of separation. In December, 1790, Washington strongly recommended to Congress the admission of Kentucky into the Union, and on February 4, 1791, an act for that purpose became a law. A ninth Convention, held in April, framed a State Constitution, and Kentucky was admitted into the Union as a State on June 1, 1792. Its population at that time was about 75,000. Isaac Shelby was elected its first Governor.

For several years much uneasiness was felt among the people of Kentucky on account of Indian forays, and especially because of the non-admission of the free navigation of the Mississippi River by the Spanish possessors of Louisiana. The question was settled and all uneasiness was allayed by the purchase of Louisiana from the French in 1803. (See *Louisiana*.)

Kentucky took an active part in the second war for independence (1812-15), sending about 7000 men to the field. They were the principal actors in the military events in the north-west during that war, and which broke the power of the barbarians, and gave peace to the whole country west of the mountains which stretch north and south from the region of the St. Law-

rence to Alabama. In the war with Mexico, Kentucky gave more than its quota of volunteers.

The progress of the State was rapid. A second Constitution, made in 1800, continued in force until the present one was adopted in 1850. After the war of 1812-15 the State was undisturbed by any stirring events until the breaking out of the Civil War in 1861.

Kentucky being a border State, it held a position of great importance during the Civil War. Its population in 1860 was 1,155,684, of whom 271,511 were colored. The people, generally, were strongly attached to the Union, but many of the most influential of its political leaders sympathised with the Secessionists. The action of that State was awaited with great anxiety throughout the Union. The attitude of defiance of the National authority assumed by the Governor caused a great Union meeting to be held at Louisville on the evening of April 18, 1861, at which it was resolved that Kentucky reserved to herself "the right to choose her own position; and that while her natural sympathies are with those who have a common interest in the protection of Slavery, she still acknowledges her loyalty and fealty to the Government of the United States, which she will cheerfully render until that Government becomes aggressive, tyrannical, and regardless of our rights in Slave property."

They declared that the States were the peers of the National Government, and gave the world to understand that the latter should not be allowed to use "sanguinary or coercive measures to bring back the seceded States." They pledged equal fidelity to the State of Kentucky and to the United States. They alluded to the "Kentucky State Guard" as the "bulwark of the safety of the Commonwealth." That "Guard" was under the command of Simon B. Buckner, a Captain in the United States army, who appears to have been a sympathiser with the Secessionists; for when the Legislature required the "Guard" to swear allegiance to the United States and the State of Kentucky, Buckner would not do so himself nor allow his troops to do so; and it was not long before he led a large portion of that Guard into the Confederate camp, and became a Major-General in the Confederate army.

The Governor of Kentucky issued a proclamation of neutrality, which not only forbade the United States and "Confederate States" "invading the soil of Kentucky," but also forbade the citizens of Kentucky making "any hostile demonstration against any of the aforesaid sovereignties."

The neutrality of Kentucky was respected several months. It gave the

Secessionists of that State and Tennessee time to prepare for revolutionary action. The Confederate Government gave solemn assurance that the neutrality should be respected, but on September 4, 1861, General (Bishop) Polk, with a considerable force, seized a strong position at Columbus, Kentucky. He excused the violation of Kentucky neutrality by alleging that the National troops had done the same. The Confederate Secretary of War *publicly* telegraphed to Polk to withdraw his troops. President Davis *privately* telegraphed to him to hold on, saying, "The end justifies the means."

In the autumn of 1861, General A. S. Johnston was in command of the Confederate "Western Department," which included Southern and Western Kentucky and the State of Tennessee. Under the shadow of this power the Secessionists of Kentucky met in convention at Russellville, October 29, and passed an ordinance of Secession; declared the State independent; organized a provisional Government; chose a provisional Governor; appointed delegates to the Confederate Congress at Richmond, and called Bowling Green the State capital. Fifty-one counties were represented in that "Sovereignty Convention" by about two hundred men, without the sanction of the people.

Kentucky was scarred by battles and raids, plundered by marauding invasions, and scourged by heavy losses almost everywhere during the war. On July 5, 1864, the President proclaimed martial law in Kentucky, but the civil law was restored in 1865. The illegal government established was harmlessly represented in the Confederate Congress. As it did not affect the integrity of the State Constitution, when the war was over Kentucky resumed its normal constitutional functions. The Legislature refused to ratify the Fifteenth amendment to the Constitution.

Agriculture is the chief industry of Kentucky. A large proportion of the State is exceedingly fertile, and produces a great variety of crops in abundance. The raising of fine stock is also largely pursued. Tobacco is extensively cultivated. The famous "Blue Grass" region is specially productive. The peculiarity of that species of grass is that, falling down as it ripens, the lower portion of its stalk is protected, and furnishes nutritious grazing in winter as well as in summer. In 1880 Kentucky had 372,648 horses, 843,794 cattle, and 1,000,296 sheep.

Kentucky has extensive manufactures, those of iron and steel alone employing a capital of \$5,493,085, and yielding products valued at \$5,090,029 in 1880. It had then about 1600 miles of railways in operation within its

borders, which cost \$69,262,000. The assessed value of the real and personal taxable property of the State was \$350,563,971.

Of its 345,161 children of school age in 1880, 260,581 were enrolled in the public schools, with an average daily attendance of 192,231. The State expended for public schools in 1880 \$1,162,944.

Kentucky has been nicknamed "The Corn-Cracker State."



Tennessee.

(1758.)



DIRECTLY west of North Carolina, and extending from that State to the Mississippi River, lies Tennessee, occupying an area of 42,050 square miles, and containing in 1880, a population of 1,542,359, of whom 403,151, including 352 Indians, were colored. The State lies between latitude $36^{\circ} 30'$ north, and longitude $81^{\circ} 37'$ and $90^{\circ} 28'$ west. On its northern boundary are Kentucky and Virginia; on its southern borders are the States of Mississippi, Alabama, and Georgia; and beyond the Mississippi, on the west, are Arkansas and Missouri.

The face of Tennessee may be properly divided, in aspect, into eight natural divisions. On its eastern border are the Appalachian ranges, called Unaca Mountains, covering an area of 2000 square miles, and rising, at one point, 5000 feet above the sea. On the west of this range is the fertile valley of East Tennessee. Next lies the Cumberland table-land, a rocky plateau of about 1500 square miles, and an average height of 2000 feet above the sea level. From the western line of this plateau are the Terrace lands, which extend to the Tennessee River—a fine agricultural region, covering over 9000 square miles. Here is found the Great Central Basin, appearing like the bed of a drained lake, and very productive. The West valley of the Lower Tennessee occupies about 2000 square miles. Thence stretching toward the Mississippi is the rolling slope of West Tennessee, about eighty-four miles in width, the soil of which is light and porous, and quite fertile. The slope embraces about 850 square miles.

Tennessee was originally a part of the Carolinas, and was claimed as a part of the hunting grounds of the Chickasaws, Choctaws, Shawnoese, and even by the Iroquois. After the two Carolina provinces were separated, in 1729, North Carolina claimed Tennessee as a part of its domain, and defined its boundaries as of equal width with its own, and extending to the Missis-

issippi River. No Indian tribe made that region its fixed habitation excepting the Cherokees, who dwelt in the extreme south-east part.

In the year 1756 the Earl of Loudoun, then Governor of Virginia, sent Andrew Lewis into the Tennessee region to plant a settlement and build a fort. He erected Fort Loudoun on the Tennessee River, about thirty miles from the site of (present) Knoxville. The colony was planted in 1758. Two years later the fort was attacked by the Cherokees after great provocation.

While returning from their expedition against Fort Duquesne, in 1758, along the mountains of Western Carolina, the Indians got into a quarrel with some of the white settlers, when several of both parties were killed. Some



JOHN SEVIER, FIRST GOVERNOR OF TENNESSEE.

Cherokee chiefs were sent to Charleston to arrange an amicable settlement of the dispute. They were treated contemptuously by the Governor of South Carolina, and soon afterwards the latter, with 1500 men, invaded the Cherokee country. The troops were Virginians and Carolinians. They demanded the slayers of the white people. The Cherokees were prepared for war, and the Governor was glad to make the insubordination of his soldiers and the prevalence of the small-pox an excuse for withdrawing from the country. He accepted twenty-two Indian hostages as a security for peace and the delivery of the slayers, and then fled eastward in haste and confusion in June, 1760.

These hostages, who included some chiefs and warriors, were placed in Fort George, at the head waters of the Savannah River. The Cherokees

attempted to rescue them, and in the affray a soldier was wounded, when his companions, inflamed with anger, put all the hostages to death.

This perfidy aroused the whole Cherokee nation. They beleaguered the fort, and a war-party scourged the frontiers. The fort was captured and the inmates were massacred or carried into captivity. A distressing war ensued, which lasted about a year, when it was ended by South Carolina troops and British regulars. In June, 1761, the Indians sued for peace. Already armed men from Virginia and the Carolinas had retaken Fort Loudoun. After that settlements increased in that region, particularly on the Holston and Watauga rivers. They formed a community called the "Watauga Association," which flourished from 1769 to 1777. They had a representative in the Legislature of North Carolina for the "District of Washington."

In 1784 North Carolina ceded its western lands (Tennessee) to the United States. The people of East Tennessee, piqued at being thus disposed of, feeling the burden of State taxation, and alleging that no provision had been made for their defense or administration of justice, assembled in Convention at Jonesborough to take measures for organizing a new and independent State. The North Carolina Legislature repealed the act of cession the same year, made the Tennessee counties a separate military district, with John Sevier Brigadier-General; and also a separate judicial district, with proper officers.

Ambitious men urged the people to go forward to the goal of independence; and at a second Convention at the same place (December 14, 1784) they resolved to form an independent State under the name of Frankland, so called in honor of Benjamin Franklin. A provincial Government was formed; General Sevier was chosen Governor in March, 1785; the machinery of an independent State was put in motion, and the Governor of North Carolina (Martin) was officially informed that the counties of Sullivan, Washington and Greene, were no longer a part of the State of North Carolina.

This secession movement produced much excitement. Governor Martin issued a proclamation exhorting all engaged in the movement to return to their duty. The Assembly passed an Act of Oblivion as to all who should submit. The warning was unheeded. In November, 1785, the provisional Constitution of Frankland, based, in its construction, upon that of North Carolina, was adopted as a permanent one, when the new State entered upon an independent career.

Rivalries and jealousies soon shook the new State to its centre. These crystallized into parties. The people were divided and bewildered. Finally a third party arose which exhibited much and rapidly increasing strength. It favored adherence to North Carolina. This party was led by Colonel Tipton. It sent a delegate to the North Carolina Legislature, who was received. A delegate to represent Frankland was sent to the National Congress, but was not received.

Party spirit now ran high. Frankland had two sets of officers. Collisions were constantly occurring, and civil war seemed to be inevitable. The inhabitants of South-western Virginia sympathized with the revolutionists, and were inclined to secede from their own State. At length a collision between armed men, led respectively by Sevier and Tipton, occurred. Sevier was defeated. He was arrested and taken to prison in irons. This was a death-blow to the State of Frankland. The Assembly passed an Act of Oblivion, offered pardon to all offenders in Frankland, and in 1788 the territory was reunited to the parent State.

Virginia, alarmed by this revolutionary movement, which had affected its own citizens, hastened to pass a law subjecting to the penalty of treason any person or persons who should attempt to erect a new State in any part of its territory without previous permission being obtained from the Assembly.

In 1789 North Carolina again ceded its "territory beyond the mountains" to the United States; and in 1790 it was organized into the "Territory of Tennessee." A distinct Territorial Government was granted to Tennessee. The first Legislature met at Knoxville. The census revealed the fact, the next year, that it contained a sufficient population to entitle it to admission as a State, and measures were taken for that purpose. It contained 77,262 inhabitants, of whom 10,613 were slaves. On June 1, 1796, Tennessee was admitted into the Union as a State. General John Sevier was elected its first Governor, served two terms, and was re-elected in 1803. The Constitution then framed was amended in 1835 and again in 1853.

The people of Tennessee took an active part in the second war for independence. A week after the declaration of war in 1812, the tidings of that event reached General Andrew Jackson, at the "Hermitage," twelve miles from Nashville, when he immediately authorized Governor Blount to tender to the President of the United States himself and 2500 men. The offer was gladly accepted, and the Secretary of War tendered his thanks to Jackson and his volunteers.

A call was soon made upon Tennessee for troops, and in January about two-thirds of the best young citizens of the State, led by Jackson, started for New Orleans to reinforce General Wilkinson there. After many hardships the troops reached Natches, on the Mississippi, where they met an order from Wilkinson to halt there, as he had no instructions concerning their employment, nor quarters for their accommodation. Finally, in March, 1813, Jackson received a letter from Armstrong, the new Secretary of War, telling him that the causes for calling out the Tennessee volunteers had ceased to exist, and ordering him to dismiss them from the public service, and turn over to Wilkinson all public property in his hands. The letter concluded with the tender of a cold and formal letter of thanks of the President.

This cruel letter greatly exasperated Jackson. It dismissed his army 500 miles from home, without pay, without sufficient clothing, without provisions or means of transportation through a wilderness in which barbarians only roamed. The hero, then forty-six years of age, disobeyed the order. He wrote a fiery letter to the President and the Secretary of War. The latter apologized, saying he did not know that Jackson had moved far from Nashville when he wrote his orders.

Through great sufferings the volunteers marched back through the wilderness to Nashville, taking a month in making their journey, and were then dismissed. Other Tennessee troops under John Coffee and other leaders performed eminent services in the Gulf region during the war, and against the Creek Indians. Jackson's soldiers, who admired his persistence and endurance, said he was "as tough as a hickory," and from this circumstance he was called ever afterwards "Old Hickory." He won the battle of New Orleans, and saved the Southern States from invasion and possible conquest by the British.

Like those of Kentucky, the large majority of the people of Tennessee were opposed to Secession. They loved the Union supremely, but their Governor was an active and persistent enemy of the Republic. He had been for months in confidential correspondence with the public enemies in the Gulf States, and in Virginia and South Carolina. He labored incessantly to effect the secession of Tennessee. He called a special session of the Legislature at Nashville on January 7, 1861, and in his message he recited a long list of alleged grievances which the people had suffered under the authority of the National Government. He recommended amendments of the National Constitution, favorable to the perpetuation of the slave-labor system.

The Legislature provided for a Convention, but decreed that when the people should elect the delegates they should vote for "Convention" or "No Convention;" also that any ordinance adopted by the Convention concerning "Federal Relations," should not be valid until submitted to the people for ratification or rejection. The election was held on February 9, and the Union candidates were elected by an aggregate majority of about 65,000, and by a majority of nearly 12,000 decided not to have a Convention. The loyal people were gratified, and believed that the Secession movement in the State would cease. It was a delusive belief and hope.

The Governor called another session of the Legislature on April 25, 1861, and in his message to that body strongly urged the immediate secession of the State. He urged that there was no propriety in wasting time in submitting the question to the people, for a revolution was imminent. A few days later a commissioner of the "Confederate States of America," clothed with authority to negotiate a treaty of alliance, appeared before the Legislature. He argued that there was not a true-hearted man in all the South who would not spurn submission to the "Abolition North," and who did not consider the system of Government founded on Slavery, which had just been established, as the only form of government that could be maintained in America.

On the first of May the Legislature, in which there was now a majority of Secessionists, authorized the Governor to enter into a military league with the Confederate States, by which the whole military rule of the Commonwealth would be subjected to the will of the President of the Confederacy. It was done on the 7th of May. Eighteen members from East Tennessee (which section remained loyal) did not vote. An act was passed to submit to the people of Tennessee a declaration of independence and an ordinance of Secession; also an ordinance for the adoption of the Constitution of the "Confederate States." So Tennessee was bound to the fortunes of the Confederacy. The authorities of that State were also bound to turn over to the "Confederate States all the public property, naval stores, and munitions of war of which they might then be in possession, acquired from the United States, on the same terms and in the same manner as the other States of the Confederacy.'

The Governor had already (April 29) ordered the seizure of Tennessee bonds to the amount of \$66,000, and \$5000 in cash, belonging to the United States; and at about the same time Jefferson Davis, the President of the

Confederacy, disgusted with "Kentucky timidity," recommended the Kentuckians who were "true to the South," to go into Tennessee, and there rally and organize. The Governor was empowered to raise 50,000 volunteers for "the defense of the State," and, if necessary, to call out the whole available military strength of the Commonwealth, to be under the immediate and absolute control of the Governor. He was also authorized to issue bonds of the State to the amount of \$500,000, to bear an annual interest of eight per cent. So the purse and the sword of Tennessee were placed in the hands of the disloyal Governor before the people were allowed to be heard on the vital subject of Secession from the Union.

Yet loyal men in the Commonwealth, in face of threatened violence, and by competent authority, openly declared that the vote was against Secession in Tennessee by a large majority. And equally competent authority declared that the change of figures at Nashville, by the Governor and his confederates, seemed to authorize him to proclaim, as he did (June 24, 1861), that the vote in the State was 104,913 for Secession and 47,238 against Secession.

During the war that ensued Tennessee became a theatre of most distressing events. The people suffered intensely. These sufferings ceased only when General Hood was driven from Tennessee after the battle at Nashville, in December, 1864. Tennessee furnished 31,000 volunteer soldiers for the National army.

On January 9, 1865, a State Convention assembled at Nashville, and proposed amendments to the Constitution of the Commonwealth abolishing Slavery and prohibiting the Legislative recognition of property in man. The military league with the Confederacy, the ordinance of Secession, and all acts of the "Confederate States" Government were annulled, and the payment of any debts contracted by that Government was prohibited.

Meanwhile, William G. Brownlow had been elected Governor of Tennessee. These proceedings just mentioned were ratified by him and by the Legislature. In April, 1865, the Legislature ratified the Thirteenth amendment of the National Constitution; reorganized the State Government, and elected Senators to Congress. The Fourteenth amendment of the Constitution having been ratified by the State in 1866, it was soon afterwards admitted to representation in Congress. The State Constitution was revised early in 1871.

The staple agricultural products of Tennessee are cotton and Indian

corn. It ranked ninth in product of corn among the States in 1880, yielding that year 62,764,429 bushels, and the product of cotton was 330,621 bales. It is also an extensive stock-raising State. It may not be reckoned as a manufacturing State to any great extent. Its industries are diversified. Its iron and steel manufactures, in 1880, amounted in value to \$2,274,203. There are nearly 2000 miles of railroads in operation within the Commonwealth, which cost \$114,776,000.

The provisions for popular education in Tennessee are liberal. In 1880 there were 544,862 children of school age, of whom 291,500 were enrolled in public schools, with an average daily attendance of 205,081. The State expended for public schools that year \$786,000. There were 1450 private schools, with 41,000 pupils. The State has twenty-one universities and colleges.

Tennessee is an Indian word, signifying "River of the Big Bend," alluding to its course from its sources in the mountains of Eastern Kentucky, down into Alabama, and up through Tennessee and Kentucky into the Ohio River. It is sometimes called "the Big Bend State."



OHIO.

(1788.)



OHIO is one of the Central States of the Union, lying between latitude $38^{\circ} 23'$ and $41^{\circ} 58'$ north, and longitude $80^{\circ} 31'$ and $84^{\circ} 48'$ west. Lake Erie and a part of the State of Michigan form its northern boundary. On the east is Pennsylvania and West Virginia; on the south Kentucky, and on the west Indiana. It is separated from West Virginia and Kentucky by the Ohio River, while a larger portion of its northern shore is washed by the waters of Lake Erie. Ohio embraces 41,060 square miles of territory, and in 1880 it contained a population of 3,198,062, of whom 80,142, including Indians and Chinese, were colored. In population it ranks third among the States, third in agricultural products, and fifth in the value of its manufactures.

The central part of Ohio is a table land about 1000 feet above the sea level. On its water-shed, between Lake Erie and the Ohio River, in the northern part of the State, the land rises to an altitude of thirteen and fourteen hundred feet. In the south central part of the State is a range of bold hills, near the Ohio River. There is some prairie land in the State. In the north-west is a large tract of very fertile soil called the "Black Swamp," which was heavily timbered. The Ohio River flows along its border a distance of 436 miles in a navigable stream.

Ohio was formerly a part of the vast region claimed by France, lying between the Alleghany and the Rocky Mountains, that bore the general name of Louisiana. The region was first visited by white men in 1673, when Father Marquette, a French missionary, accompanied by M. Joliet, of Quebec, with five boatmen, set out from Mackinaw to penetrate the unexplored region south of that station of the Jesuit missions in the wilderness. They had heard of the Mississippi River and sought it. In two canoes they reached the Wisconsin River by way of Green Bay and the Fox River. They floated down the Wisconsin to the Mississippi, and went down that mighty

stream to the mouth of the Arkansas River, whence they returned to tell of their great discoveries. In this exploration they entered the mouth of the Ohio River, and learned something of its vast length and the region it passed through.

Marquette's account caused other explorations in the region of the Mississippi to be undertaken. Robert Cavalier La Salle, a Jesuit priest in his earlier years, was an ardent adventurer at Montreal, in Canada, at the middle of the 17th century. He engaged in trade with the Indians along the St. Lawrence and the shores of Lake Ontario. Inspired by Marquette's adven-



EDWARD TIFFIN, FIRST GOVERNOR OF OHIO.

tures, he conceived a grand scheme of exploration and traffic westward, with a few companions. He was authorized to build forts, and was given the monopoly of the trade in buffalo skins for five years. He first established a trading-post at the mouth of the Niagara River. In the summer of 1679 he built a vessel near the site of the city of Buffalo, and, with other adventurers and servants, went in her through the chain of great lakes to Green Bay, in the north-western part of Lake Michigan, whence he sent the vessel back, laden with furs, and made the rest of their voyages in canoes.

La Salle and his companions penetrated to the Mississippi River, voyaged to its mouth, and there, on the shore of the Gulf of Mexico, they erected a cross, placed on it the arms of France, and proclaimed the whole Valley of

the Mississippi and the region of its tributaries a part of the dominion of France. La Salle called the whole vast domain Louisiana, in honor of his King, Louis XIV. of France.

The charters granted to English adventurers on the Atlantic coasts covered the domain westward between the Alleghany Mountains and the Pacific Ocean. This produced conflicting claims of the French and English. The former claimed the whole region north-west of the Ohio River, as a part of Louisiana. The French erected forts on the Mississippi, the Illinois and the Miami, or Maumee, rivers, and on the lakes.

In 1748 the "Ohio Land Company," of English-speaking people, was chartered, chiefly to counteract and check the encroachments of the French. The latter at once began the erection of a chain of forts in the rear of the English settlements that were forming. This brought on the conflict known as the French and Indian War. Previous to the breaking out of that conflict, the English had built (1749) a fortified trading-post on the Miami River, at the mouth of Laramie Creek in (present) Shelby county, Ohio. This creek was so called in compliment to Laramie, an enterprising French trader, who erected a trading station there a few years before. He was a bitter foe of the English, and incited the barbarians against them. The settlement at this post was named "Pickawillany," and was the first settlement by Britons within the present domain of the State of Ohio. It was destroyed by some Frenchmen and Indians within a year or so after it was established.

At about the same time Celeron, an accomplished French commander, with a few regular soldiers, some Canadians and Indians, was sent to take possession of the whole Ohio country for the French King. He was provided with leaden tablets, properly inscribed, to bury at different places as evidence of pre-occupation. The expedition left Montreal at the middle of June, 1749, crossed Lake Ontario, and, making a portage at Niagara Falls, coasted along the south shore of Lake Erie, and made an overland journey to the waters of the Alleghany River. They went down the Ohio in canoes to the mouth of the Great Miami, below Cincinnati, proclaiming French sovereignty and burying six leaden plates. Thence they made an overland journey to Lake Erie.

In these efforts to secure territorial dominion no heed was given to the more rightful claim of the natives to the soil. A Delaware chief said:

"The French claim all the land on one side of the river, and the English claim all the land on the other side of the river. Where is the Indians' land?"

After the Revolution disputes arose between several States as to their respective rights to lands north-west of the Ohio. These disputes were settled by the cession of the territory to the United States by the respective States, Virginia reserving 3,709,848 acres near the rapids of the Ohio, and Connecticut reserving a tract of 3,666,921 acres near Lake Erie, known as the "Western Reserve." The fine city of Cleveland is within the domain of the "Western Reserve." That tract was ceded to the United States in 1801.

These ceded lands were erected into a Territory in 1787. The National Congress was in session, while the Convention that framed the Constitution of the United States was in session at Philadelphia. The former had assembled at New York. In July a committee, of which Nathan Dane of Massachusetts was chairman, reported "An ordinance for the government of the territory of the United States north-west of the Ohio." This territory was limited to the ceded lands in that region.

The report, embodied in a bill, contained a special proviso, which struck a fatal blow at the unjust British law of primogeniture. It provided that the estates of all persons dying within the territory should be equally divided among all the children or next of kin in equal degree. It also provided and declared that "there shall be neither slavery or involuntary servitude in the said territory otherwise than in the punishment of crimes, whereof the party shall have been duly convicted."

This ordinance was adopted after adding a clause relative to the reclamation of "fugitives from labor"—in other words, slaves—similar to that which was incorporated into the National Constitution a few weeks afterwards. This making the region a free-labor territory, and the fact that Indian titles to seventeen million acres of land in that country had lately been extinguished by treaty with several tribes of barbarians, caused a sudden and great influx of settlers into the country along the northern banks of the Ohio. The "North-western Territory" so established included the present States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin. It is estimated that within a year after the passage of that ordinance and the organization of the Territory fully 20,000 men, women and children passed down the Ohio River to become settlers upon its banks.

The first permanent settlement in Ohio was made in 1788. General Rufus Putnam, of the Continental army, and General Benjamin Tupper formed a plan for a company of soldiers of the Revolution to undertake the task of founding a settlement on the Ohio River. Delegates from several

counties in Massachusetts responded to a call to consider the matter. They formed the "Ohio Company," composed of men like Generals Putnam, Varnum, Tupper, Parsons, Meigs and others whom Americans delight to honor. They purchased a large tract of land from the Government, and in the spring of 1787 General Putnam and a company of forty-eight men, women and children seated themselves near the confluence of the Muskingum and Ohio rivers athwart the great war-path of the five north-western tribes when they made their bloody incursions to the frontiers of Virginia and Pennsylvania. A fort was then in course of erection there, which was named Fort Harmer.

They named the settlement Marietta, in honor of Marie Antoinette, Queen of King Louis XVI. of France. This was the seed from which the great State of Ohio sprang. It was composed of the choice materials of New England society. At one time—in the year 1789—there were no less than ten of the settlers there who had received a college education.

In the same year when Marietta was founded, John Cleves Symmes, who had been Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of New Jersey, and a member of the Continental Congress, in behalf of himself and associates, contracted with the Board of Treasury for the purchase of a large tract of land on the north side of the Ohio River, between the Great and Little Miami Rivers; and in November, 1788, the first settlers on that tract seated themselves near the mouth of the Little Miami, five miles above the site of Cincinnati, where Fort Washington was built soon afterwards. These settlements were annoyed by the Indians (who were incited by the British, who were yet occupying the fort at Detroit) until after the victories of Wayne, in 1794, and the treaty at Greenville the next year.

General Arthur St. Clair was appointed Governor of the Territory, Winthrop Sergeant Secretary, and Samuel Holden Parsons, James M. Varnum and John Cleves Symmes, Judges. The Territory of Ohio had been erected soon after the settlement at Marietta, but there was no fixed seat of government for some time. In 1795 the Governor and Judges, who constituted the Supreme Court of the Territory, undertook to revise the laws and to establish a system of statutory jurisprudence by adaptations from the laws of the original States. For this purpose they met at Cincinnati. A General Court was fixed there and at Marietta. Laws were passed whenever needed, and were promulgated at any place where the Territorial Legislature after the organization of that body happened to be assembled.

The first meeting of the Territorial Legislature was organized on September 24, 1799, when they were addressed by Governor St. Clair. The Territory was then entitled to a change in the form of its Government, under the provisions of the ordinance of 1787, which provided that when there were five thousand free males of full age in the Territory, the people should be authorized to send a representative to a Territorial Legislature. The laws enacted by the Governor and Judges, the validity of which had been questioned, were ratified. William Henry Harrison, afterwards President of the United States (who was a son-in-law of Judge Symmes), and was then Secretary of the Territory, was elected a delegate to Congress. A short time after the adjournment of this session of the Legislature, Connecticut ceded the Western Reserve to the United States.

On the first of November, 1802, a Territorial Convention assembled at Chillicothe and framed a State Constitution, which was ratified on the 29th. It was never referred to the people for consideration, but became the fundamental law of the land by the act of the Convention. By this act Ohio became one of the States of the Republic, on equality with the others. Edward Tiffin was made the first Governor of Ohio, in 1803, and served until 1807.

The first General Assembly under the State Constitution met at Chillicothe, on the Scioto River, on April 1, 1803. That place remained the seat of government until 1810, when it was removed to Zanesville. In 1816 Columbus became the capital of the State and so remains.

During the second war for independence Ohio was the theatre of many stirring military events, the most prominent of which were the siege of Fort Meigs and the defense of Fort Stephenson at Sandusky, now Fremont. The famous naval battle on Lake Erie, in which Perry gained a decisive victory, was fought in sight of the shores of Ohio. Her citizens were participants in about all the struggles in the north-west at that time.

Some of the southern counties of Ohio suffered from the raids of guerillas during the Civil War. Her sons volunteered to assist in the salvation of the Republic with great alacrity. That Commonwealth furnished to the National army during the war 317,133 soldiers.

At the kindling of the Civil War, Ohio had a population of 2,300,000. It had been settled chiefly by New England people, and public sentiment was decidedly in favor of the freedom of the slaves. Its Governor (Dennison) was an avowed anti-slavery man. In his message to the Legislature, in

January, 1861, he explained his refusal to surrender fugitive slaves from Kentucky and Tennessee; denied the right of Secession; affirmed the loyalty of his State; suggested the repeal of the Fugitive Slave law, as the most effectual way of effecting the repeal of the Personal Liberty acts, and called for the repeal of the laws of the Southern States which interfered with the rights of the citizens of the free-labor States. The Legislature was in accord with the Governor, and pledged "the entire power and resources of the State for a strict maintenance of the Constitution and laws of the General Government, by whomsoever administered." These promises and pledges were fulfilled to the utmost.

Ohio is famous alike for its agricultural and manufactured products. Besides its immense cereal crops, it raises a vast number of cattle, sheep, and swine. In 1880 it had 1,860,000 cattle, 492,400 sheep, and 3,142,000 swine. There were 20,699 manufactories in the State in 1880, employing about \$189,000,000 invested capital, and yielding an annual product of the value of \$348,298,390.

The assessed valuation of the property of the State, real and personal, was \$1,525,445,000. It had, in 1882, within its boundaries, 6664 miles of railroads in operation, which cost, with equipments, \$610,728,103. The Commonwealth ranks second in railroad mileage.

Ohio makes ample provision for the education of its children. In 1880 there were enrolled in its public schools 752,442 children, and an average daily attendance of 495,000. The State expended that year for public instruction \$7,707,630. Normal schools, academies and seminaries abound, and in nearly all the larger cities there are commercial colleges. There were thirty-five universities and colleges in the State, with 5,694 pupils.

Ohio is an Indian word signifying "Beautiful River." It is nicknamed "The Buckeye State," so called from the buckeye tree, which bears a nut resembling the horse-chestnut.



LOUISIANA.

(1699.)



LOUISIANA is one of the "Gulf States," lying wholly in the Mississippi Valley, between latitude $28^{\circ} 56'$ and 33° north, and longitude 89° and 94° west. It embraces an area of 48,728 square miles, and in 1880 the number of its inhabitants was 939,946. Of these 484,992 (a trifle more than one-half) were colored, including 848 Indians and 489 Chinese.

The entire surface of Louisiana is flat, the summits of its highest land not exceeding 250 feet above the Gulf in altitude. The southern portion, including the Mississippi delta, and embracing nearly 8,500 square miles, presents very extensive marshes, and its coast is deeply indented by estuaries, bays and sounds. The southern portion is always subject to overflow when the rivers are full. The country is slightly rolling in the northern part, excepting in the north-west, where there are extensive marshes in the region of the Red River and its tributaries. The alluvial portions of the delta are very fertile.

The State of Louisiana is bounded on the north and east by Arkansas and Mississippi. On its western border is Texas, and its southern and south-eastern shores are washed by the Gulf of Mexico and its swamps and bays. Its estuaries are called bayous, some of the larger ones being mouths or outlets of the great river.

The soil of Louisiana was first trodden by Europeans when, in 1541, De Soto and his followers, proceeding westward from Florida in search of gold, came to the Mississippi, crossed it, and penetrated to the outlying eastern spurs of the Rocky Mountains. In 1673, Father Marquette, a Jesuit missionary and explorer, came down the Mississippi from the region of the Great Lakes, and discovered the upper portion of the present State of Louisiana, but did not plant the seeds of a colony. (See *Ohio*.)

Late in December, 1681, Robert Cavelier de la Salle, an energetic French

adventurer, after coasting along the southern shores of Lake Michigan in canoes, with other adventurers and servants, entered the Chicago River, crossed by portage to the Illinois River, descended to the Mississippi, and went down that great stream to its entrance into the Gulf of Mexico. He named the mighty stream "Riviere Colbert," in compliment to the great minister of Louis XIV., who had encouraged his schemes in America, and was really his patron.

Henri di Tonti, an active Italian, was La Salle's lieutenant in this expedition. After the three debouching channels of the Mississippi had been explored, the whole company assembled at an elevated sand dune near the



WILLIAM C. C. CLAIBORNE, FIRST GOVERNOR OF LOUISIANA.

Gulf, and there erected a cross, upon which they affixed the arms of France and this inscription:

"LOUIS THE GREAT, KING OF FRANCE AND NAVARRE, APRIL 9, 1682."

Then a leaden plate, with a Latin inscription affirming the discovery, was buried near, when La Salle, with uplifted sword, proclaimed the whole Valley of the Mississippi, and the region of its tributary waters, a part of the French dominions. He named the vast region Louisiana, in honor of his sovereign, Louis XVI. The imposing ceremony of taking possession of the newly discovered country was concluded by the signing of a *procès verbal*, or official report of the affair, by the leader and his companions, in the following order:

La Matière (notary), De la Salle, P. Zenobe (Récollet missionary), Henri

di Tonti, François de Bous-voudet, Jean Bourdon, Sieur d'Autray, Jacques Cauclois, Pierre You, Giles Meneret, Jean Michel (surgeon), Jean Mas, Jean Duglignon, Nicholas de la Salle.

So was planted the first germ of French empire in that region, which sprang up and flourished in the 18th century.

The next year La Salle returned to Quebec, leaving Di Tonti in command in the western wilderness, with directions to meet him at the mouth of the Mississippi the following year. He went to France, laid before the Court a proposition for the settlement of Louisiana, and the conquest from the Spaniards of the rich mining country in northern Mexico, of which he had heard. He received authority for such adventures, and he was made commandant of the vast territory from the present State of Illinois to Mexico, and westward indefinitely.

On August 1, 1684, La Salle sailed from France with 280 persons of indifferant character, in four ships. They touched at Santa Domingo, entered the Gulf of Mexico, and, in consequence of a miscalculation of the incompetent navigator, they passed the mouths of the Mississippi without knowing it. They finally landed in Matagorda Bay, where their storeship was wrecked. The navigator, pleading a lack of provisions, deserted La Salle, leaving him only one small vessel. There La Salle determined to plant his colony, but the natives were hostile. Murder and sickness reduced the party to forty at the end of a year. La Salle set out for the Illinois country in 1688, and was murdered. The rest of the emigrants were massacred or made prisoners by Spaniards sent from Mexico to drive out the French.

In 1698 Pierre Le Moyne Iberville, a native of Montreal, was sent from France with two vessels and a number of men, women and children, to occupy the region at the mouth of the Mississippi river. There he received from the Indians a letter left by Di Tonti in 1686 for La Salle. He built a fort which he named Biloxi, garrisoned it, seated his colony (1699), made his brother, Bienville, Lieutenant-governor, and returned to France. He came back afterwards twice. At his last visit he found the colony reduced by sickness, and transferred it to Mobile, and so began the colonization of Alabama.

The French Government, desirous of promoting settlement in the region discovered by La Salle, officially gave it the name of Louisiana, and in 1712 granted the whole province, with a monopoly of trade, to Anthony Crozat, a wealthy French merchant, who expected large profits from mines and trade

with Mexico. He was bound to send goods and emigrants to Louisiana every year, and was allowed \$10,000 annually from the French public treasury for civil and military establishments. Crozat established trading-houses at several points; but finding small returns for great outlays, he abandoned the enterprise in 1717.

Governor Bienville having resumed control of the country, prepared to found a town on the Lower Mississippi. He sent a party of convicts from Fort Biloxi to clear up a swamp on the site of New Orleans, in 1718. When Charleroi visited it in 1722, the germ of the future city consisted of a large wooden warehouse, a shed for a church, two or three very ordinary houses, a quantity of huts, and 200 inhabitants. Bienville, believing that it would "at no distant day become an opulent city, the metropolis of a great and rich colony," removed the seat of government to this spot in 1723.

Other speculators succeeded Crozat in Louisiana. John Law, a Scotch financial adventurer, had established a bank at Paris, by royal authority, that had a financial association with the Government. It was the immediate cause of the elevation of the Government credit and of general prosperity. Law was hailed as a public benefactor. He soon promulgated a scheme of colonization and trade for the purpose of drawing great profits from the French possessions in America. An association was formed called "the West India Company," with a capital of 100,000,000 livres. It was invested with a monopoly of trade with Canada and sovereign rights over the territory of Louisiana, which was to be colonized on a vast scale.

In 1719 a royal edict conferred upon the association a monopoly of the East Indian and African trade, which now absorbed the French East India Company and took the name of "The Company of the Indies." Its capital was augmented, and it undertook to pay the French national debt by loaning money to the King at three per cent.

The Company undertook to send 600 white settlers and half as many negroes to Louisiana, but failed to carry out the scheme. Law finally induced 1,500 German emigrants to settle on a tract twelve miles square on the Arkansas River. Not long after their arrival, the great bubble of speculation burst (1720), causing the ruin of thousands who had invested money in the enterprise. The Germans in Louisiana went down to the inchoate city planted by Bienville, which was named New Orleans, received allotments of land on each side of the Mississippi, and settled there on cottage farms, raising vegetables for the supply of the growing town and the soldiers.

"The Company of the Indies" remained in existence for ten years after the crash in 1720, when it surrendered its grant to the Crown, by whom the colony was managed until 1762, when the whole province was secretly ceded to Spain by France. Louisiana passed into the possession of Spain late in 1764. It was restored to France by a secret treaty in the year 1800.

This retrocession to France was effected by Napoleon Bonaparte, who, when he became First Consul, or supreme ruler of France, ardently desired to re-establish the colonial empire of his country. At this juncture a combination of circumstances led to the purchase of the vast domain of Louisiana by the United States of America.

The settlers of the country west of the Alleghany Mountains had been much disturbed, for some time, by apprehensions that the Spanish possession of Louisiana might restrict the free navigation of the Mississippi River, and so obstruct their commerce with the outside world, which the people of the future commonwealths of the Great Valley might desire to enjoy. Their apprehension was justified by the violation of a treaty made with Spain by the Governor of Louisiana, who, in 1795, closed the port of New Orleans against the commerce of the Republic.

This act produced intense excitement, in the Western country especially. There was a proposition before Congress for forcibly taking possession of the Louisiana region, when it was rumored that by a secret treaty Spain had retroceded that domain to France. President Jefferson, ever alive to the interests, independence and power of his country, wrote an able letter to Robert R. Livingston, then the American minister at the Court of the First Consul, instructing him to represent to Bonaparte that the occupation of New Orleans by France would endanger the friendly relations between the two nations, and perhaps even compel the United States to make common cause with Great Britain. Livingston was instructed to insist upon the free navigation of the Mississippi, and to open negotiations, if possible, for the acquisition of New Orleans and surrounding territory by the United States.

Bonaparte, who had failed in his efforts to reduce Santa Domingo to submission, saw that the tenure by which he held Louisiana was feeble, and he promptly determined that what he could not defend he had better dispose of. He summoned two of his ministers on April 10, 1803, to whom he said that the English, having despoiled France of all her northern possessions in America, would now covet those in the South. He spoke of the strong British naval force then in the Gulf of Mexico, said affairs with Santa

Domingo were daily getting worse, and that the English might easily conquer Louisiana.

"I am not sure," said Bonaparte, "that they have not already begun an attack upon it. Such a measure would be in accordance with their habits, and in their place I should not wait. I am inclined, in order to deprive them of all prospect of ever possessing it, to cede it to the United States. Indeed I can hardly say that I cede it, for I do not yet possess it; and if I wait but a short time, my enemies may leave me nothing but an empty title to grant to the Republic I wish to conciliate. They only ask for the city of New Orleans, but I consider the whole colony as lost; and I believe that, in the hands of this rising power, it will be more useful to the political, and even the commercial interests of France, than if I should attempt to retain it."

Bonaparte asked the opinion of the two ministers. They did not agree. The next day he sent for Marbois (one of them), who approved of the proposed cession, and said:

"The season for deliberation is over. I have determined to renounce Louisiana."

The negotiations began on that day by Mr. Livingston and Mr. Monroe with representatives of the First Consul. The treaty was signed on April 30, 1803. The vast domain of Louisiana was ceded to the United States for the sum of \$15,000,000, and it was agreed that the vessels and merchandise of France and Spain should be admitted into all its ports free of duty for twelve years.

"By this cession of territory," said Napoleon to Mr. Livingston, "I have secured the power of the United States, and given to England a maritime rival who, at some future time, will humble her pride."

The American flag was first raised in Louisiana in December, 1803. The next year the territory was divided into two governments, namely—the "Territory of Orleans," and the "District of Louisiana." In February, 1811, Congress authorized the inhabitants of the former Territory to meet in convention and frame a State Constitution. It was done, and on April 8, 1812, the Territory was admitted into the Union as the State of Louisiana. William C. C. Claiborne was elected its first Governor in 1812, and served until 1816.

On April 14, 1812, Congress, by act, took possession of a region east of the Mississippi which it had acquired the year before, and which now forms a part of the Commonwealth of Louisiana, and added it to the new State.

By another act, on June 4, the "District of Louisiana" had its title altered to "District of Missouri."

In the war of 1812-15 Louisiana bore a pretty heavy share of the burden. On its soil was fought the last great battle of that war. The State was invaded by a powerful British land and naval force in the last month of 1814. The enemy appeared in the Gulf of Mexico with fifty vessels of war of all sizes, and first came in sight of the coast a little east of Lake Borgne. Believing their expedition to be unknown to the people of Louisiana, they came in buoyant spirits. But they had been seen by a buccaneer of the Gulf, who revealed their approach to the Americans. New Orleans was thrown into a panic. General Jackson, who was at Mobile, was sent for in great haste. He came, proclaimed martial law, and prepared for the defense of the city.

The British scattered a flotilla of American gunboats on Lake Borgne, and landed several thousand troops some miles below New Orleans, where Jackson boldly attacked them on the night of December 23. Reinforced, the British pressed forward, and on January 8, 1815, a very severe battle was fought on the plains of Chalmette, four or five miles below the city, by troops led by General Pakenham, one of Wellington's veterans, and Americans largely composed of volunteers from Kentucky and Tennessee under General Jackson, who had hastily cast up a line of entrenchments. The British were repulsed and driven to their ships, and New Orleans and the State of Louisiana were saved.

New Constitutions for the State of Louisiana were framed in 1845 and 1852. The people of the State were disposed to regard the Secession movements with disfavor, but the leading politicians favored them, and soon had control of public affairs. Soon after the election of Mr. Lincoln, the Governor called a special session of the Legislature at Baton Rouge, on December 10, 1860. In that body the Union sentiment was powerful, yet not sufficiently so to arrest the mischief that menaced the Commonwealth with disaster. An effort was made to submit the question of "Convention" or "No Convention" to the people, but failed, and an election of delegates to a Convention to be held on January 8, was ordered. At that election the popular vote was small, but it was of such a complexion that the Secessionists were hopeful.

The Convention met at Baton Rouge on January 23, 1861. The Legislature had convened there on the 21st. The number of the delegates in the

Convention was 130. Governor A. Mouton was chosen President. Commissioners from South Carolina and Alabama were there, and were invited to seats in that body. They accepted, and made violent speeches in favor of Secession. A committee of fifteen was appointed to draft an ordinance of Secession. It was reported on the 24th and was adopted on the 26th by a vote of 113 against 17.

Though Louisiana had been purchased by the United States less than sixty years before, that Convention declared that the State "reserved the rights and powers heretofore delegated to the Government of the United state of America," its creator. The President of the Convention, at the conclusion of the balloting, said: "In virtue of the vote just announced, I now declare the connection between the State of Louisiana and the Federal Union dissolved, and she is a free, sovereign and independent power."

No State in the Union was more dependent on that Union for its permanent growth in population and wealth than Louisiana. The device on its seal was a pelican brooding over its young, emblematical of the fostering care of the National Government. The Convention, by a decided majority, refused to submit the ordinance of Secession to the people for consideration. The State authorities proceeded to seize the property of the National Government within the borders of Louisiana.

In the war that ensued Louisiana became the theatre of very stirring events. In the spring of 1862 a military and naval armament, commanded respectively by General B. F. Butler and Commodore Farragut, ascended the Mississippi from the Gulf, and took possession of New Orleans and of a portion of the State. The demand for troops made upon the State by the Confederate Government was responded to with alacrity, but the control of the navigation of the great river by the National Government kept the whole State in subjection.

In December, 1862, the first election for Union civil officers was held. An election for State officers was held in 1864, when Michael Hahn was chosen Governor, and invested with the powers of military Governor. On the ratification of the Thirteenth amendment to the National Constitution, Louisiana was regarded as a re-organized State, and it soon resumed its place in the Union.

The two most valuable agricultural resources of Louisiana are cotton and sugar. In 1880 the value of the cotton productions was \$20,000,000. It produced in that year about 175,000 hogsheads of sugar and 12,000,000 gal-

lons of molasses. It is not largely engaged in manufactures. New Orleans had, in 1880, over 900 manufacturing establishments, which produced articles valued at \$19,000,000. The assessed valuation of taxable property in the State was \$160,162,439. It contained 1231 miles of railways in operation, which cost about \$45,000,000.

The number of children of school age in the State in 1880 was 273, 845, of whom only 64,440 were enrolled in the public schools. Of this number about one half were colored. The whole amount expended for public schools that year was \$455,758. There were over 300 private schools and eight colleges.

New Orleans is the commercial metropolis of the State. It contained 216,000 in 1880. Baton Rouge, its political capital, contained 7,200 inhabitants.

Louisiana is called "The Creole State."



INDIANA.

(1730.)



INDIANA is one of the most flourishing of the Central States of the Union, and in 1880 ranked sixth among the States in population, and sixth in the value of its agricultural productions. Its population then was 1,978,301, of whom 39,503 were colored, including 246 Indians and a few Chinese. It lies between latitude $37^{\circ} 46'$ and $41^{\circ} 46'$ north, and $84^{\circ} 49'$ and $88^{\circ} 2'$ west, and embraces an area of 36,350 square miles. The State of Michigan and the southern end of Lake Michigan form its northern border. On the east is Ohio, on the west Illinois, and on the south-east and south is Kentucky, from which it is separated by the Ohio River.

The topography of Indiana is peculiar. There are no mountains in the State, and no hills of considerable height excepting those known as "river hills." These have been formed by the erosion of rivers which drain the State, that have, in the course of ages, furrowed valleys of considerable depth and much broader than their present channels. The sloping bounds of these valleys are given the appearance of hills varying from two hundred to four or five hundred feet above the valleys. Some of the river hills along the Wabash Valley reach an altitude of 600 feet. These river hills are broken and rugged. There is a large area of prairie land in the State.

Indiana was first trodden by Europeans in the persons of French missionaries and traders. They established Christian missionary stations on the shores of the great Lakes, from the eastern end of Lake Ontario to Lake Superior. They carried the Cross and the lilies of France far into the wilderness south of the Lakes and down the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico (see *Louisiana*), making thousands of converts, and friends of the dusky barbarians. They planted seeds of civilization here and there; and the discoveries of their priests and traders gave to France a claim to a magnificent domain of millions of square miles in extent. This was accomplished before the close

of the 17th century. Indiana formed a part of this domain, and the French had missionary stations and trading posts within its borders so early as the year 1700.

The first and most considerable of these religious and commercial stations in Indiana was planted in Vincennes, on the Wabash, in present Knox county. There a small colony of Canadians were seated in 1702. It is believed that the first white settlers there were French soldiers, who, by intermarriages with the Indians, lost many of their civilized habits. But little is known of the country until the English seized the French domains in America, and became permanent owners by the treaty of 1763.

During the old war for independence the French settlers in that region



JONATHAN JENNINGS, FIRST GOVERNOR OF INDIANA.

were bitterly hostile to the English. The latter built a strong fort at Vincennes, where some stirring events occurred in the year 1779. The year before, Major George Rogers Clarke, a Virginian, who first appeared in Kentucky in 1772 as a land surveyor, led an expedition against the British frontier posts north of the Ohio. He captured that at Vincennes in August, and left a small garrison there.

Clarke was trying to make peace with the Indian tribes in the northwest, who were continually incited to war with the settlers by the British, and he hoped to accomplish much by the possession of the strong post of Vincennes. In January, 1779, British troops from Detroit retook Vincennes. Clarke, at a post in Illinois, started immediately with 175 men to recover it. They penetrated the dark wilderness, and for an entire week they traversed

the "drowned lands," suffering every privation from wet, cold and hunger. They sometimes waded the cold snow-flood arm-pit deep in the forest, and arrived in sight of Vincennes on the morning of February 18.

The troops blackened their faces with gunpowder, to make themselves appear hideous, crossed the river in a boat, and pushed toward the little town. The garrison and the people were astounded at this apparition. It seemed as if the intruders must have dropped from the clouds. The garrison surrendered without opposition, and before noon the American flag was seen waving over the fort.

Indiana formed a part of the north-western territory. (See *Ohio*.) Soon after the settlements were made in Ohio, several military expeditions were sent into that region. In 1790 General Harrison destroyed the Indian towns near the site of the (present) city of Fort Wayne; and in May, 1791, General Charles Scott led a force from Kentucky, which laid waste Indian villages on the Wabash and Eel rivers. The treaty at Greenville, in 1795, completed the pacification of the Indians on the north-west, and the settlers from the East began to seat themselves in Indiana.

In the year 1800, the "Western Reserve" (see *Ohio*) in north-eastern Ohio having been sold to a company of speculators, measures were taken to extinguish certain claims on the part of the United States and the State of Connecticut. Fully 1000 settlers were already on the "Reserve." Congress passed an Act (April 28, 1800) authorizing the issue of letters-patent conveying the title of these lands to the Governor of Connecticut for the benefit of those claiming under him, and similar letters-patent were issued by Connecticut, relinquishing all jurisdiction. The "Reserve" was annexed to the North-west Territory, which was presently divided by Act of Congress (May 7) into two separate jurisdictions, the western one being called "the Territory of Indiana," after one of the old Revolutionary Land Companies.

On July 4, 1800, the Territorial Government of Indiana was organized at Vincennes (which was made its capital), with William Henry Harrison as Governor. It then included Michigan and Illinois. The former was set off in 1805, and the latter in 1809, when Indiana was reduced to its present dimensions. At that time its population was about 24,000.

In 1803 a movement was made in Congress, at the instance of the settlers in Indiana, for suspending for a limited term, in the case of that Territory, the provisions of the ordinance of 1787 (see *Ohio*), prohibiting slavery north-west of the Ohio River. A committee, of which John Randolph, of Vir-

ginia, was chairman, reported strongly against the propositions. They expressed a belief that in "the salutary operation of this salutary and sagacious restraint [of the ordinance] the inhabitants of Indiana would, at no distant day, find ample remuneration for a temporary privation of labor and immigration."

The subject was brought up the next year and referred to a new committee, who reported in favor of such suspension, so as to admit, for ten years, the introduction of slaves born within the territory of the United States, their descendants to be free, males at the age of twenty-five years, and females at twenty-one years. No action was had, and Indiana was spared the infliction. Other unsuccessful efforts were made to introduce the slave-labor system.

In the spring of 1810, Tecumtha, a crafty, intrepid, unscrupulous and cruel Shawnoe chief, attempted to form a confederacy of all Indian tribes of the north-west in war against the people of the United States. His brother, "the Prophet," was his wily accomplice. During the ensuing summer the frontier settlers became so alarmed by the frequent religious and military exercises of the barbarians, that General Harrison, Governor of the Indiana Territory, invited the brothers to a council at Vincennes. Tecumtha appeared on August 12, leaving a body of his warriors in camp in a grove near by. Accompanied by thirty of his followers, Tecumtha approached. He was invited to come under the broad porch of the Governor's residence, but refused, saying:

"Houses were built for you to hold councils in; Indians hold them in the open air."

He then took a position under some trees in front of the house, and addressed the large concourse of people with great force and eloquence. When one of the Governor's aides offered him a chair, saying, "Your father requests you to take a seat by his side," the haughty chief drew his mantle around him, and standing erect, said, with scornful tones: "My father! The Sun is my father, and the Earth is my mother on her bosom I will repose!" and then seated himself upon the ground.

Tecumtha's speeches at the council were bold, arrogant, and sometimes insolent. He avowed the purpose of his brother and himself to establish a confederacy of the tribes, and his general bearing was one of hostility. The people were alarmed. No one slept that night. In the morning Tecumtha apologized for some of his words of anger, and he and Harrison, equal in courage, ended the council in an apparently friendly manner.

The next spring (1811) the Indians, encouraged by the teachings of the Prophet, began to roam over the country in small marauding parties, plundering the settlers of horses, cattle and other property, and creating universal alarm. This annoyance continued all summer, and, growing worse, General Harrison resolved to put an end to these depredations.

Early in the fall the Governor obtained from the General Government an increase of military strength. Near the present town of Terre Haute he built a stockaded fort. He mobilized the militia of the Territory, and he decided that measures must be taken at once to measure strength with the Prophet, who was evidently preparing for war. With about 1000 men, regulars and militia, the Governor moved in the direction of the Prophet's town. To him the Governor sent friendly chiefs on a mission, who were treated with scorn.

The troops now pressed forwards, and on November 6, 1811, they encamped near Tippecanoe creek, within three miles of the Prophet's seat. These movements had been watched by vigilant barbarian scouts. The camp was arranged so as to meet a sudden attack at any point, with wagons and baggage in the centre. Early in the evening the wearied soldiers were soundly slumbering, excepting many vigilant sentinels.

In the camp of the Prophet none slumbered. After midnight his warriors crept stealthily through the prairie grass undiscovered, and with horrid yells fell upon Harrison's camp, which was soon in arms and their fires extinguished. It was half a surprise. A desperate fight ensued. Nineteen-twentieths of the militia had never seen a battle. The struggle lasted until daylight, when the barbarians were dispersed by the mounted men of the Governor's force, leaving forty of their number dead on the field. The horsemen rode to the Prophet's town and found it deserted. It was laid in ashes, and then the little army, with its wounded, fell back to Vincennes. Sixty of its number had been killed, and twice as many wounded. Then he devastated the Indian country around. This little campaign effectually checked the alarmed invaders; inspired them with wholesome respect for the power of the frontier settlers; secured peace for a while, and gave Governor Harrison a decided military reputation. When, in 1840, he was a candidate for the Presidency of the United States, with John Tyler, of Virginia, for Vice-president, one of the most popular campaign songs had the couplet:

“Tippecanoe
And Tyler too.”

During the war of 1812-15, that broke out soon afterwards, the Indians in the north-west generally joined the British. They massacred a large portion of the garrison of Fort Dearborn, at Chicago. But they were terribly punished by the devastation of their country. Tecumtha, who was commissioned a Brigadier-General in the British army, was slain at the battle of the Thames, in Canada, at which General Harrison commanded the Americans. After the close of that war the Indians remained quiet, and formed friendly relations with the frontier settlers.

On the 29th of June, 1816, the people of Indiana, in Convention assembled, adopted a State Constitution; and on the 11th of December the same year the Territory was admitted as an independent State of the Union, when Jonathan Jennings was chosen its first Governor for the term of three years. The new State grew rapidly in wealth and population.

In 1820 Indianapolis (then just laid out) became the seat of government, and in 1824 it was made the State capital. It is near the centre of the State, on the west fork of the White River. It was incorporated a city in 1836. It contained 76,000 inhabitants in 1880.

So rapidly did immigration pour into Indiana, as one of the consequences of the completion of the Erie canal by the State of New York, that more than 3,500,000 acres of land were purchased from the United States Government within the State during the ten years ending in 1830. Then began an era of wild speculation there. Vast internal improvements were begun. When the terrible collapse of the credit system occurred in 1837 there was general bankruptcy, and the State was burdened with a debt of over \$14,000,000. But recuperation was soon completed, and in 1840 the population of the State had doubled. Between 1850 and 1860 a great canal from the lakes to the Ohio River was completed, and in 1880 there were 5,069 miles of railroads in operation within its borders, which cost \$213,462,348.

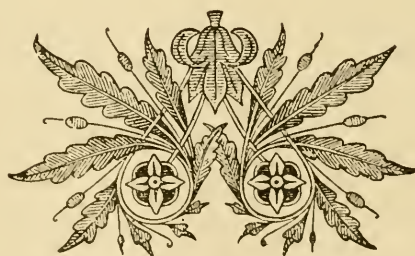
When the Civil War broke out, Indiana took an intensely loyal position. The attack on Fort Sumter, in April, 1861, aroused the patriotic indignation of the people. Its Governor (Oliver P. Morton) was able and energetic, and gave a steady support to the National Government. Indiana troops were among the first in the field, and they were seen in almost every battle-field of that contest. One of the earlier battles (Romney) was fought by an Indiana regiment, led by Colonel Lew Wallace, who afterwards took a high rank in the army, in diplomacy and in literature. Indiana furnished to the National army 195,147 soldiers.

The heaviest agricultural product of Indiana is Indian corn. In 1880, according to the census, that product amounted to 115,482,300 bushels. Its wheat product was 47,300,000 bushels; its oats yield was 15,600,000 bushels; and its wool product was 6,168,000 pounds. It is an extensive manufacturing State. The value of its total manufactures, in 1880, was \$148,000,000, in which pursuit nearly \$66,000,000 were invested.

The assessed value of the taxable property of the State, in 1880, was \$727,815,122. The State debt was only \$4,998,178.

The State expended, in 1880, the sum of \$4,504,407 for public instruction. The number of children of school age in 1885, from six to twenty-one years, was 740,176. Of these 12,112 were taught in private schools. There were in the State, in 1885, fourteen colleges and universities.

Indiana has been nicknamed "The Hoosier State." The word *hoosier* is a corruption of *husher*, formerly a common term for a bully throughout the West



MISSISSIPPI.

(1716.)



THE State of Mississippi lies between latitude $30^{\circ} 20'$ and 35° north, and longitude $88^{\circ} 12'$ and $91^{\circ} 4'$ west. Its area is 47,156 square miles, and in 1880 its population was 1,131,597. Of these 652,199, including 1857 Indians, were colored. Arkansas and Louisiana lie on its western border, Tennessee on its northern, Alabama on its eastern, and Louisiana and the Gulf of Mexico on its northern boundary.

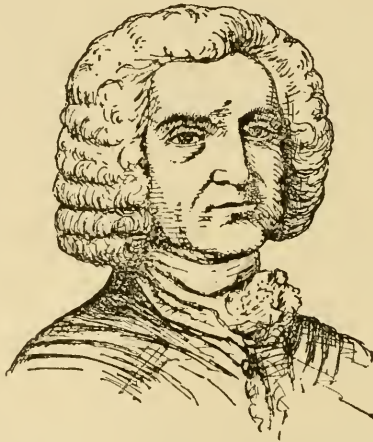
The northern and eastern portions of Mississippi present a fine rolling country; the southern part is level, and much of the whole State is marshy, but very fertile in the northern part. The north-eastern counties embrace fine prairie land, and the south-eastern counties are covered with a dense growth of pine trees.

It is probable that the first European who trod the soil of Mississippi was Fernando De Soto, an energetic Spanish adventurer, who accompanied Pizarro to Peru, and afterwards conducted an expedition to Florida in search of gold. He sailed from Cuba at the middle of May, 1539, with a thousand followers, cattle, horses, and swine, to found a State there as well as to procure gold. He landed on the shores of Tampa Bay and started on his quest, exercising such cruelty toward the gentle natives whom he found there that he made enemies of them all.

For nearly two years De Soto wandered, chiefly in a north-westerly direction at first, his companions greatly diminishing in numbers by slaughter and disease, until May, 1541, when he stood upon the banks of the mighty Mississippi River, then full to the brim. He had crossed the (present) State of Mississippi, and was now near the Lower Chickasaw Bluffs, in Tunica county. The Spaniards made no settlements, and for 132 years afterwards that region was hidden from the ken of dwellers in the Eastern hemisphere. Then (1673) Marquette and Joliet, two French explorers, having floated down

the Mississippi in canoes, touched at several points on the shores of the State we are considering.

De la Salle and the Chevalier di Tonti (see *Louisiana*) visited the Natchez Indians in 1682, and spent some time among them. These Indians, seated on the site of Natchez, were most interesting objects for the contemplation of these visitors. They were more enlightened than any of the barbarian nations north of Mexico. They were Sun and Fire worshippers. Their King they called "the Great Sun," and the chiefs "Suns." Like the Parsees of India, their priests kept a fire continually burning in their principal temple, and offered sacrifices of the first-fruits of the earth and of the chase. The Natchez was a small nation.



BIENVILLE, PROMINENT CHARACTER IN HISTORY OF MISSISSIPPI.

The first attempt to found a colony within the bounds of Mississippi was made by Iberville in 1699. He landed 200 emigrants from France on the shores of Biloxi Bay, where he built a fort, and there fostered the germ of the subsequent settlements at New Orleans and Mobile. He made his brother, Bienville, King's lieutenant, and on his departure his brother, Sauvville, became Governor of Louisiana. Iberville visited the Natchez nation, where he was very kindly received, and was given leave to build a fort at their metropolitan village on the bank of the Mississippi River.

A few French stragglers made their way to the Natchez, but no effort at settlement was made there until Bienville, in 1716, built a fortification on the site of Natchez, and named it Fort Rosalie, in compliment to the Countess Pontchartrain. It is supposed to have stood near the eastern limit of the

present city of Natchez. The colony then established there was also called Rosalie. Biloxi was abandoned and Rosalie flourished for a time, though, in 1718, it came under the control of John Law, the great gambler and speculator. Bienville planted other colonies in the Yazoo region and at other points, but their growth was feeble.

The "Great Sun" of the Natchez was at first the warm friend of the white settlers around Fort Rosalie, but the commandant of that work, M. Chopart, behaved so cruelly toward him and his people, that his friendship was alienated. Chopart even ordered the chief to leave the village of his ancestors, with his people, when the "Great Sun" resolved to rid his country of the intruders. He formed a plot to this end. A young Indian girl, who loved the ensign of the garrison, revealed the plot to him, whilst tears ran down her cheeks. The ensign told Chopart of the plot, who put him in irons for giving a false alarm. Fatal security!

On the appointed day, November 29, 1729, the "Great Sun," with a few chosen warriors, repaired to the fort. They were all armed with knives and other concealed weapons. A large supply of powder, lead and provisions had lately been sent to the fort. The Indians applied for a supply of ammunition for a great hunt upon which they said they were about to enter, and brought corn and poultry to barter for it. Thus the garrison was thrown off its guard, and a number of the Indians were permitted to enter the fort; among them the Great Sun. Others were distributed among the warehouses of the "Company of the Indies" (see *Louisiana*) at various points.

The Great Sun gave a signal, when his followers drew their concealed weapons and proceeded to massacre the garrison and all near the warehouses. The massacre began about nine o'clock in the morning, and before noon the whole male population of the French colony in that region was destroyed—about seven hundred in number. The negro slaves and women and children were saved. Two soldiers, who happened to be away in the woods at the time, hearing the yells of the barbarians, who were excited by liquor, and the smoke from burning buildings, as they were returning, escaped in a boat and carried the dreadful tidings to New Orleans. The colony on the Yazoo had shared the same fate; also at two or three other places, and dismay spread over all the settlements.

The exasperated French at New Orleans at once began a war of extermination. The little nation of the Natchez were driven across the Mississippi and dispersed, when most of them perished, while the Great Sun and his prin-

cial war chiefs, made prisoners, were sent to Santo Domingo and sold as slaves. The nation was wiped out. Other prisoners were captured to the number of about 400, and were taken to New Orleans and sold as slaves.

Louisiana, which embraced Mississippi, became a royal province in 1730, and in 1733 Bienville (who had gone to France) was sent back as Governor.

Other wars with the Indians ensued. In 1763, Eastern Louisiana, which included present Mississippi and nearly all Alabama, was ceded to Great Britain by the treaty of Paris, which ended French dominion in North America. Soon afterwards emigration from the English colonies and the Atlantic seaboard began to people that region.

Early in 1798 the United States became possessed of Eastern Louisiana, and on April 7 of that year the domain was erected into the "Territory of Mississippi" by act of the National Congress. It comprised all of the present States of Mississippi and Alabama, between latitude 30° and 35° north. A Territorial Government was organized in 1802: William C. C. Clairborne was appointed Governor, and was made a commissioner, with General Wilkinson, to take possession of Louisiana when it was purchased from France. In 1804 Clairborne was appointed Governor of the Territory of Louisiana.

Mississippi proper was very little affected by the war of 1812-15, or the preceding wars with the Indians. Many of the most stirring events of the war with the Creek nation occurred in its eastern portion, which is now the State of Alabama. (See *Alabama*.) In 1811 the portion of the Territory below 31°, ceded by Spain, was added to Mississippi.

In March, 1817, Alabama was set off from Mississippi, and its dimensions were reduced to the present area of the State. A delegate Convention framed a State Constitution soon afterwards, which gave to all adult male white residents the right of suffrage, but a pecuniary qualification was required to hold office. The Governor, chosen for two years, must possess 600 acres of land, or other real property to the value of \$2000; the Senators, chosen for three years, half as much; and the members of the House, chosen for one year, half the qualification of Senators.

On the subject of slavery the Constitution provided that the Legislature should have no power to pass laws for the emancipation of slaves without the consent of their owners, nor without paying therefor, previous to such emancipation, a full equivalent in money; nor laws to prevent immigrants from bringing with them persons deemed slaves by the laws of any one of the United States, so long as any persons of like age and description should be.

continued in slavery by the laws of the State. But laws might be passed prohibiting the introduction of slaves for the purpose of sale, and also laws to compel the owners of slaves to treat them with humanity, to provide them with necessary clothing and provisions, and to abstain from all injuries extending to life and limb. Provision might also be made, in case of disobedience to such laws, for the sale of a slave to some other owner, the proceeds to be paid over to the late master. The Legislature was also required to pass laws giving to owners of slaves the right of emancipation, saving the rights of creditors, and requiring security that the emancipated slaves should not become a burden to the county. Similar restrictions and provisions had been made in the first Constitution of Kentucky. A new Constitution was adopted in 1832, when the slave population of the State had been, for thirty years, in excess of the free population. David Holmes was chosen the first Governor of the State of Mississippi.

Mississippi, after the election of Mr. Lincoln to the Presidency of the United States, was one of the earliest of the slave-labor States to take measures for seceding from the Union. Its Legislature assembled at Jackson, its capital, early in November, 1860, the special object of the session being to make preparations for the secession of the State. A Convention was authorized to meet on January 7, 1861, and an election of delegates thereto was ordered to take place on December 20. The Governor (John J. Pettus) was authorized to appoint commissioners to visit each of the slave-labor States, to endeavor to secure their co-operation.

A portion of the Legislature was for immediate separation and secession. The press of the State was divided in sentiment, and so were the people, while their representatives in Congress were active in promoting revolution, while retaining their seats. One of the latter was Lucius Q. C. Lamar (now, 1888, one of the Associate Justices of the United States Supreme Court), who was afterwards sent as a diplomatic agent to the Russian Court by the Confederacy.

Before the close of November, 1860, Mr. Lamar (who is a native of Georgia) submitted to the people of Mississippi a plan for a Southern Confederacy. After reciting the ordinance by which Mississippi was created a member of the Union, and proposing its formal withdrawal therefrom, the plan proposed that the State of Mississippi should "consent to form a Federal Union" with all the slave-labor States, the Territory of New Mexico, and the Indian Territory west of Arkansas, under the name and style of the United

States of America, and according to the tenor and effect of the Constitution of the United States," with slight exceptions. It proposed to continue in force all laws and treaties of the United States, so far as they applied to Mississippi, until the new Confederation should be organized, and that all regulations, contracts and engagements made by the old Government should remain in force. It provided that the Governor of Mississippi should perform the functions of President of the new United States within the limits of that State, and that all public officers should remain in place until the new Government should be established. It was also provided that the accession of nine States should give effect to the proposed ordinance of Confederation; and that when such accession should occur, it should be the duty of the Governor to order an election of Congressmen and Presidential electors.

The question of immediate secession or co-operation at once became a vital issue among the political leaders in Mississippi. Two parties were formed, one called the "Secessionists," and the other "Co-operationists." Each was equally zealous for secession. "These are but household quarrels," said a leading "Co-operationist." "As against Northern combinations and aggressions, we are united. We are all for resistance. We differ as to the mode; but the fell spirit of Abolitionism has no deadlier, and, we believe, no more practical foes than the Co-operationists of the South. We are willing to give the North a chance to say whether it will accept or reject the terms that a united South shall agree upon. If accepted, well and good; if not accepted, a united South can win all its rights, in or out of the Union."

The "Co-operationists," governed by reason rather than by passion, counselled waiting for an overt act of wrong on the part of the incoming Administration, before raising the resisting arm. The Hotspurs denounced this counsel as cowardly in thought and disastrous in practice. One of their poets put into the mouths of the "Co-operationists" these words of bitter irony:

"We are waiting till Abe Lincoln grasps the *purse* and grasps the *sword*,
And is sending down upon us all his abolition horde;
Waiting till our friends are murdered, and our towns and cities sacked,
And poor 'Sambo' gets his freedom—waiting for the 'overt act';
Waiting till our fields of cotton, cane and rice, and every grain,
All are desolate and lonely 'neath King Cuffee's stupid reign;
'Till our sisters, wives and daughters are compelled to his embrace—
Yes, we're waiting! only waiting, for this horrible disgrace."

The Convention met at Jackson, a town of 2500 inhabitants, on January 7, 1861. Only about one-third of the members were "Co-operationists." The confident Secessionists at once assumed an arrogant and menacing tone. Delegates from South Carolina and Alabama, being present, were invited to seats in the Convention, and added weighty words in favor of immediate secession. An Ordinance of Secession was speedily drawn. It was reported on the 8th, and when the vote was taken many of the "Co-operationists," intimidated by the words and manner of the Secessionists, had not the courage to vote No, and the next day the Ordinance was adopted by a vote of eighty-four *ayes* and fifteen *noes*. The vote was declared unanimous by the Chairman, and Mississippi was proclaimed to be a "free, independent and sovereign State." Speaking for the people of the State (to whom the Ordinance was not submitted for their consideration) the instrument declared that they would "consent to form a Federal Union with such of the States as have seceded or may secede from the Union of the United States of America."

The next step was to assert the "sovereignty" of Mississippi. South Carolina was acknowledged as a "sovereign State" by her younger but not less ardent sister, who, like herself, had a population of slaves greater in number than the population of freemen. Steps were taken to sever its connection with the National Government, excepting the convenient one of the postal system. They assumed the right to dictate the terms on which the Mississippi River should be navigated on that portion which washed the shores of that State. They planted a battery at Vicksburg, to the dictates of which all passers-by were required to bow, as to the cap of Gessler. These obstructions were maintained until removed by the power of the National forces in 1863. At that point was fought one of the most decisive battles of the Civil War, which resulted in victory for the National troops, at the beginning of July, that year.

In June, 1865, the President appointed W. L. Sharkey provisional Governor of Mississippi, who ordered an election of delegates to a Convention which met August 14. By that Convention the Ordinance of Secession was repealed, and the State Constitution was so amended as to abolish slavery. A Governor and Congressmen were elected in November, but the latter were not admitted to seats in the National Legislature, the Congress having its own plan for the re-organization of all disorganized States to carry out.

Mississippi and Arkansas were constituted one military district, and military rule took the place of civil government.

Early in 1868 a Convention framed a new Constitution, which was rejected in June following. Congress, in the spring of 1869, authorized the President of the United States to again submit the Constitution to a vote of the people of Mississippi. It was almost unanimously ratified at an election in November, when a loyal Governor was elected. In January, 1870, the Legislature ratified the Fourteenth amendment of the National Constitution, and in February Mississippi was re-admitted into the Union and the civil authority assumed control.

The most valuable agricultural production of Mississippi is cotton. In 1880 that crop exceeded that of any other State in the Union, being 963,111 bales. It also produces abundance of rice, Indian corn, oats, some wheat, and sugar. It has comparatively few manufactures. In 1882 there were within its borders 1231 miles of railroad in operation, which cost nearly \$9,000 000. The assessed value of the taxable property of the State, real and personal, in 1880, was a little more than \$100,000,000.

The total expenditure of the State for public instruction was \$679,475 in 1880. There were 426,689 children of school age, of whom 237,065 were enrolled in the public schools, with an average daily attendance of 156,824. There were four colleges and universities in the State.

Mississippi derives its name from that of the great river, which is an Indian word signifying "Father of Waters." It is nicknamed "The Bayou State," from the great number of its estuaries.



ILLINOIS.

(1720.)



ILLINOIS, one of the Central States of the Union, is in the upper valley of the Mississippi, between $30^{\circ} 59'$ and $42^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, and $87^{\circ} 35'$ and $91^{\circ} 40'$ west longitude. It embraces an area of 56,650 square miles. Its immediate neighbor on the north is Wisconsin. On the east is Lake Michigan and the States of Indiana and Kentucky, and on the west Iowa and Missouri. From the last two States it is separated by the Mississippi River. By the census of 1880 Illinois ranked fourth among the States in population, and first in the value of agricultural productions.

The general aspect of the face of Illinois is a comparatively level surface. It consists in many parts of gently undulating prairies, covered with luxuriant grass, and an abundance of wild flowers of almost every description. Indeed the great landscape feature of Illinois is its beautiful prairies, stretching out like seemingly boundless lakes in almost every section of the Commonwealth. The State is a gently inclined plane sloping from Lake Michigan towards the Mississippi and Ohio rivers. The Grand Prairie is not more than 500 feet above the sea. At the junction of the Ohio and Mississippi the land is not more than 350 feet above the level of the Gulf of Mexico. Most of the State is drained by the tributaries of the Mississippi, which washes its entire western border.

The first European settlers in Illinois were Frenchmen from Canada, who followed the Sieur de la Salle into the wilderness beyond the great lakes in the 17th century. That adventurer, as we have observed in the sketch of Ohio, sailed through the chain of lakes in a vessel (the *Griffon*) which he built not far from the site of Buffalo. When he sent her back from Green Bay, laden with furs, he, with Father Hennepin, the Chevalier di Tonti, and about thirty followers, cruised along the west shore of Lake Michigan to its southern extremity, whence they made their way to the Kankakee and

descended it to its mouth at a larger stream, in bark canoes. They descended that larger stream to Lake Pi-mi-te-o-my (now Lake Peoria), at the foot of which they found a large encampment of the Illinois nation of barbarians.

La Salle named the river, of which Lake Peoria is an expansion, the "Illinois." There the adventurers spent the winter of 1679-80. Though they held friendly relations with the barbarians, it was a season of great anxiety, of fear, and to La Salle of disappointment, which almost amounted to despair, for circumstances convinced him that the *Griffon*, with her valuable cargo, was lost. This misfortune implied his ruin, yet he did not despair. He had received glowing accounts of the great river not far to the westward;



SHADRACH BOND, FIRST GOVERNOR OF ILLINOIS.

and a little above where Peoria now stands, he began the construction of a fort, which was called Creve Cœur—"Broken Heart." Having secured his company in winter quarters, La Salle returned to his point of departure—a port on the site of Kingston, at the eastern end of Lake Ontario, afterwards called Frontenac, leaving Di Tonti in command at Creve Cœur. That fort was the first seed of European civilization planted in Illinois.

La Salle soon returned to the wilderness. Meanwhile Father Hennepin had gone down the Illinois River to the Mississippi, and explored the upper waters of the mighty stream to the Falls of St. Anthony (see *Minnesota*). Creve Cœur was deserted, for a foray into that region by a band of Iroquois had caused Di Tonti and his men to seek safety among the Potawatomies near Chicago.

Early in 1682 La Salle and his followers, having constructed a large barge on the Illinois River, descended it to the Mississippi, went down that river to its mouth, and, as we have observed (see *Louisiana*), there took possession of the Mississippi Valley in the name of the King of France. Returning, La Salle left a part of his company behind to form trading stations. They established posts at Kaskaskia, Cahokia, and one or two other places within the present domain of Illinois. Emigrants from Canada soon joined these settlers, and these trading posts speedily became flourishing villages. So was begun the colonization of Illinois, about the year 1720. La Salle is justly regarded as the father of French colonization in the Valley of the Mississippi.

The settlements in Illinois had grown slowly but steadily for more than a score of years, when the Jesuits established missions at Kankaskia and Cohokia. Then the population most rapidly increased. The Peoria tribe desiring a mission among them, one was established on the site of Peoria in 1711. Military forts were also established in Illinois and at St. Louis; and towards the middle of the 18th century the French had erected a line of fortified posts from Niagara to the Gulf of Mexico. The English, seated on the Atlantic slope, tried to rival and check the French by attempts to settle in the Ohio Valley.

By the conquest of Canada in 1760, and by the treaty at Paris in 1763, the English acquired possession of the French domains in North America. After the failure of his conspiracy in 1763, Pontiac took refuge among the Illinois Indians, where he was murdered. Illinois then had a population of about 3000.

As we have observed (see *Ohio*), the United States established the vast north-western territory in 1787, which included Illinois. When the Indiana Territory was created, Illinois formed the western part of it. The Territory of Illinois was erected in 1809, and comprised the present State and that of Wisconsin and a part of Minnesota.

The first most important movement toward the settlement of Illinois was made in 1773, when William Murray and others obtained from the Kaskaskia and Cahokia native chiefs deeds for a vast domain in Illinois. These deeds were pronounced legal by high English judicial authority. Other deeds were granted by Indian chiefs, and very soon English settlers appeared in that region. In 1765 the first English Governor of the undefined region was appointed.

During the old war for American independence, Western Illinois became a theatre of stirring military events. The English at Detroit stirred up the Indians in the north-west against the French settlers and those from the Atlantic seaboard. At that juncture appeared George Rogers Clarke, a bold "hunter of Kentucky," and a young Virginian who obtained permission to make a "campaign in Illinois," in the summer of 1778. He felt that he might count upon the co-operation of the French settlers there. With four companies of volunteers, chiefly Virginians, he went down the Ohio River to Fort Massac, where they landed, and pushed on through the wilderness towards Kaskaskia, which was garrisoned by British troops. On arriving near that post, unobserved, they halted until night, when orders were given that persons who could speak the French language should be sent in every direction to give notice to the inhabitants "that every man who should appear on the streets would be shot down."

The expedition crossed the river in boats, and, directed by a soldier who had been made a prisoner, the fort and the town were speedily taken. Within two hours the inhabitants were disarmed without bloodshed. The expedition had come by land and water 1300 miles, a part of the way through a wilderness trodden by hostile barbarians. They pushed on to and captured Cahokia, fifty miles further up the Mississippi River, with equal ease. Clarke and his little force afterwards captured the British fort at Vincennes, now in Indiana. (See *Indiana*.)

The white settlements in Illinois were much disturbed by Indian forays until after the treaty at Greenville, in 1795, when peace reigned until the ambitious Tecumtha, in imitation of Pontiac, endeavored to form a confederation of the Indian tribes in the north-west for the extermination of the frontier settlements.

In 1809, as we have observed, the western portion of Indiana was erected into the Territory of Illinois, at which time there were nearly 12,000 white inhabitants within that domain. The battle of Tippecanoe frustrated the plans of Tecumtha (see *Indiana*), and the barbarians were made to feel a wholesome fear of the military in that region; but when the war of 1812-15 broke out soon afterwards, and they formed alliances with the British, they became bold and aggressive. At about the time when Detroit was surrendered to the British (see *Michigan*), in August, 1812, the Indians became parties to a dreadful tragedy at Chicago, on the western shore of Lake Mich-

igan. It then consisted of Fort Dearborn, the home of a Canadian trader, and a few huts.

When war was declared, in June, 1812, the garrison at Chicago consisted of a single company of United States regular soldiers, commanded by Captain Heald. The other officers were Lieutenant Helm, Ensign Ronan, and Surgeon Van Voorhes. The wives of Heald and Helm were there. A few families had removed to the protection of the fort, both French and Canadians. The surrounding Indians were Potawatamies, who were in alliance with the British.

On the 7th of August, 1812, a friendly Potawatamie chief—"Catfish"—arrived at Fort Dearborn with a despatch from General Hull at Detroit, containing the first news received at Chicago of the declaration of war. The letter announced the capture of Mackinaw, and directed Captain Heald to evacuate the fort, if practicable, and in that event to distribute all the United States property contained in the fort and the agency among the Indians of the neighborhood as a peace offering, and to repair to Fort Wayne.

Catfish advised Captain Heald to remain in the fort, being amply supplied with provisions and ammunition; but if the Captain decided to evacuate, to do so at once, before the barbarians could have time to gather their forces. "Leave the fort and the stores as they are," he said, "and let them make distribution themselves, and while the Indians are engaged in that business the white people may make their way to Fort Wayne in safety."

Captain Heald did not heed this judicious advice, but declared that he should evacuate the fort in accordance with Hull's instructions. He did not consult his junior officers. These, when they heard of his determination, remonstrated against it, believing that the troops could not pass through the country of the hostile Indians with safety. He refused to listen to them, and prepared to assemble the Potawatamies and distribute the property among them. The soldiers began to murmur, and dissatisfaction prevailed throughout the garrison. The surrounding Indians became more unruly every hour, and yet Captain Heald, with fatal procrastination, postponed the assembling of the barbarians for almost three days. On the afternoon of the 12th the commander held a farewell council with them. His officers refused to join him in the council, for they had received intimations that treachery was designed. The chiefs were much agitated, and the squaws were greatly excited.

Captain Heald's attention was called to the impolicy of furnishing the

Indians with ammunition to be used against the white people. He was alarmed, and at evening he had the powder cast into a well, and the liquor of the garrison poured into the little stream close by the fort. The watchful and suspicious Indians had observed this perfidy, and were greatly excited thereby.

On the morning of the 15th, the day appointed for the evacuation of the fort, there was positive evidence of the intention of the Indians to massacre the white people. The barbarians were overwhelming in numbers. When, at nine o'clock, the gate of the fort was thrown open, the march began. The band struck up the *Dead March in Saul*. Mrs. Heald rode by the side of her husband, on horseback. Captain Wells, her uncle, a veteran Indian fighter, led the procession, followed by a band of friendly Miamis.

At the Sand Hills, between the prairie and the beach (between Indiana and Michigan avenues, just south of North street, Chicago), the Potawatamies, 500 in number, attacked the white people. The cowardly Miamis fled at the first onslaught. The troops fought desperately, but fully two-thirds of the white people were slain. Twenty-eight strong men had broken through the ranks of the enemy, and gained a slight eminence on the prairie. The barbarians did not follow. A parley ensued, and arrangements were made for a surrender of the white survivors as prisoners of war, to be redeemed by ransoms. The captors and the captives hastened to the fort. There nearly all the wounded men were killed and scalped, for the British commander at Malden had offered a bounty for such trophies.

In the conflict at the Sand Hills the women bore a conspicuous part. The wife of Capain Heald, who was an expert with the rifle, and was an excellent equestrian, deported herself bravely. She received severe wounds. Though bleeding and faint, she managed to keep her saddle. An Indian raised his tomahawk to kill her, when she looked him full in the face, and, with a sweet, melancholy smile, said in his native tongue—"Surely you will not kill a squaw!" The appeal was effectual and her life was spared. The wife of Lieutenant Helm had a severe personal conflict with a stalwart young Indian, who attempted to tomahawk her. She sprang on one side, and received the blow intended for her head upon her shoulder, when she endeavored to get hold of his scalping-knife that hung in a sheath on his breast. While thus struggling she was dragged from her antagonist by another Indian, who bore her, in spite of her desperate resistance to the margin of the lake and plunged her in, and at the same time she was held so that she

should not drown. He was Blackbird, a chief friendly to her husband and her father (Mr. Kinzie). Taken to the prairie after the encounter, she there learned that her husband was safe. Mrs. Heald was also saved, as a prisoner of war, for ransom.

The people of Illinois, having adopted a State Constitution, the Territory was admitted to the Union on December 3, 1818, as an independent Commonwealth with Shadrach Bond as its first Governor, who held the position from 1818 until 1822. It then had 35,220 inhabitants. In 1832 the troubles with the Indians culminated in the "Black Hawk war," which resulted in the removal of all the dusky barbarians from the State.

The growth of the Commonwealth in population was remarkable. There the Mormons, persecuted in Missouri, seated themselves, and began building a temple at Nauvoo. Their conduct was so offensive to the people that they determined to drive them from the State. Joseph Smith, the founder of that body, and his brother Hiram, were murdered by a mob at Carthage jail late in June, 1844. In the autumn the Mormons, 20,000 in number, left the State and migrated to Utah.

The growth of Chicago, the chief city of Illinois, in population and wealth, is one of the marvels of history. It was surveyed for a village in 1830; in 1880, fifty years afterwards, it contained over 503,000 inhabitants.

The cereal products of Illinois are greater in amount than those of any other State in the Union. In 1880 it yielded 325,792,481 bushels of Indian corn; 51,110,502 bushels of wheat, and 63,189,200 bushels of oats. Nearly 4,000,000 pounds of tobacco were raised, and over 6,000,000 pounds of wool. It had over 1,000,000 horses, 2,384,322 horned cattle, 1,037,600 sheep, and 5,170,266 swine.

In 1880 there were 14,549 manufacturing establishments, with \$140,652,066 capital invested in the business, and producing goods of the value of \$414,664,673. In that year there were 9383 miles of railways in operation within the State—more miles than in any other State.

In 1880 Illinois was out of debt. The assessed valuation of its taxable property, real and personal, was \$786,616,394.

The number of children of school age in Illinois in 1884 was 1,069,274, of whom 728,681 were enrolled in the public schools, with an average daily attendance of 485,625. The total expenditure for public schools was \$7,536,682. There were 80,440 pupils in private schools. There were twenty-eight universities and colleges, two State normal universities, and many normal schools.

ALABAMA.

(1711.)



ALABAMA is one of the Gulf States, lying between latitude $30^{\circ} 15'$ and 35° north, and longitude $84^{\circ} 56'$ and $88^{\circ} 48'$ west. It embraces an area of 52,250 square miles, and had a population in 1880 of 1,262,505, of whom 600,320, including 213 Indians, were colored. On its northern boundary lies the State of Tennessee; on the east, Georgia and Florida; on the south, Florida and the Gulf of Mexico, and on the west, Mississippi.

The north-eastern part of Alabama is diversified by the outlying hills of the Alleghany Mountains, which here have their southern termination, and gradually form a fine rolling country, which covers the whole surface of the State to within fifty or sixty miles of the Gulf. The most important river in the State is the Alabama, formed by the junction of the Coosa and Tallapoosa rivers about ten miles above Montgomery, the State capital.

When De Soto and his followers traversed the Alabama region, in 1540, they found the country well populated by a race of red-men, who possessed elements of civilization. They were evidently an offshoot of the Aztecs. They were worshippers of the sun, moon and stars. They were an athletic and vigorous race. The men were well-proportioned, active and graceful in all their movements. The women were smaller, exquisitely formed, and some of them very beautiful.

The common men, in colder weather, wore a mantle about the size of a blanket, made of cloth wrought of the soft inner bark of trees, interwoven with hemp or flax. They wore them gracefully over the shoulder, leaving the right arm exposed. Around the loins was a short tunic, extending to the middle of the thighs. The richer men and nobles wore beautiful mantles made of feathers of every hue, exquisitely arranged on the skins of fur-bearing animals, with dressed deer-skin tunics wrought in colors, and mocassins and buckskins.

The women of the better sort, at the cooler season, wore a garment of cloth or feathers or furs, wrought like the mantle of the men. It was wrapped more closely around the body at the waist, and fell gradually down to the knee. The rest of the body was left bare, except in the coldest weather, when they wore short mantles that fell from the neck to the hips. Their heads were always uncovered. Both sexes wore ornaments made of beautiful shells, the claws of beasts, or strings of pearls. It is related that an Indian queen, on the banks of the Savannah, took from her neck a magnificent string of pearls, and wound it around that of De Soto. Sometimes they wore pearl pendants in their ears.



DE SOTO, PROMINENT IN THE HISTORY OF ALABAMA.

The theology or religious system of the people was very simple. They regarded the Sun as the Supreme Deity, and venerated the moon, the planets, and some of the brighter stars. In their benedictions they would sing, "May the Sun bless you!" "May the Sun guard you!" or "May the Sun be with you!" They had temples, in which were well-wrought wooden statues, some of them of persons who were entombed in the sacred place. Rich votive offerings of pearls, deer-skins and furs were seen in their temples, all dedicated to the Sun, the great god whom they worshipped. They seem not to have had a Great Spirit in their system of worship.

At the beginning of March the men of the community selected the skin of the largest deer, with the head and legs attached, which they filled with a

variety of fruit and grain. It was sewed up, and appeared like a live creature in form. Its horns were garlanded with fruits and early spring flowers. Then the effigy was carried in a procession of all the inhabitants to a plain, and placed on the top of a high post. There, at the moment of the sun-rising, the people all fell upon their knees, with their faces toward the luminary, and implored the Sun-god to grant them, the ensuing season, an abundance of fruit and grain as good as those which they then offered.

Some of the social customs of these semi-barbarians were very attractive. We may consider only one, that of the marriage of a chief. He would send out some of his principal men to select from the daughters of the best families the youngest and prettiest of the marriageable ones, for his bride. The chosen one was painted and decorated in the most tasteful manner preparatory to the nuptials. She was covered from her waist almost to her knees with a tunic of rich feathers. Then she was placed in a sedan chair, the top of which was an arch of green boughs, festooned and garlanded with flowers. In that vehicle she was conveyed to the presence of her future lord on the shoulders of six noblemen, who were preceded by musicians and two men bearing magnificent feather fans, and followed by dancing girls and relatives of the bride. Arrived at the palace, she was received by the lords in waiting, who conducted her to a seat by the side of her husband, on an elevated dais, when great pomp and ceremony were displayed by those in attendance.

If the weather was warm the young couple were constantly fanned by beautiful maidens, and were regaled with the unfermented juice of the grape in its season, or with a kind of sherbet made of orange juice at other times. At near the sun-setting, the chief and his young wife walked out into an open field, followed by all the people, and at the last parting ray of the luminary they prostrated themselves towards the west, and invoked the blessings of the Sun upon themselves and their children. From that moment until the stars appeared the people indulged in music and dancing—the music of the reed and a sort of tambourine, and the dancing of young men and maidens—when the chief and his bride retired to their dwelling, there, with friends, to partake of a marriage-feast by the light of lamps.

Such were the people—kind and hospitable, amiable and just—who inhabited the Gulf region when De Soto and his rough followers invaded their country in 1540, and made portions of their paradise a sort of pandemonium, for a while.

De Soto and his armed followers, on foot and on horseback, after fighting their way through Florida and Georgia, entered the beautiful and fertile Coosa country, in Alabama. Tidings of their treachery and cruelty had gone before them. On the borders of the Savannah River they had been hospitably entertained by an Indian queen, a young and beautiful maiden who ruled over a large extent of country. She offered them her services; gave De Soto rich presents, and entertained the Castilians many days, when they departed westward in search of gold. De Soto requited the kindness of the maiden queen by carrying her away, a prisoner, keeping her near his person as a hostage for the good behavior of her people. She finally escaped, and sent couriers throughout the Gulf region to proclaim the perfidy of the Spaniards.

Early in 1540 De Soto pushed southward through the Alabama region, repaying hospitality with treachery and injustice at every step. The Spaniards came to the temporary residence of the "Black Warrior," Tuscaloosa, lord of many tribes, and feared by the people in the region between the Alabama and Mississippi rivers. He was haughty in demeanor, gigantic in stature, grave in aspect, and forty years of age. He was the head of the Mobilian tribes. De Soto invited him to journey with him a little distance. He reluctantly consented. Placed on a powerful horse, and with few attendants, he soon found himself a prisoner to the Spaniards, who held him as a hostage, De Soto continually riding by his side. They crossed the Alabama River at (present) Selma, and journeyed toward the sea.

De Soto soon discovered signs which gave him uneasiness. Tuscaloosa was in continual consultation with his principal attendants. He was also sending runners to his capital, Maubila, telling De Soto he was preparing for their honorable reception there. De Soto did not believe him, and took precautions against treachery.

De Soto and Tuscaloosa rode into Maubila together on a bright October morning, and were received in a great square, with music, songs, and the dancing of Indian girls. They dismounted, and when seated under a canopy of State, Tuscaloosa requested not to be held as a hostage any longer. De Soto hesitated, when the angry Emperor sprang to his feet, and with haughty demeanor walked into a dwelling near by. De Soto's interpreter was sent to invite him to return to breakfast with him. Tuscaloosa refused, saying, "If your chief knows what is best for him, he will immediately take his troops out of my country."

De Soto had scarcely recovered from his surprise when he was informed

that fully 10,000 warriors, followers of Tuscaloosa, well armed, were in the houses. A greater portion of the Spaniards were lagging in the woods, hunting, in fancied security. De Soto, anxious to postpone an attack until his followers should arrive, approached Tuscaloosa with smiles and gracious words. The chief turned haughtily away, and mingled with his warriors. At that moment another chief rushed out, and denounced the Spaniards as thieves and robbers. One of the greatest soldiers of the expedition, angered by this insolence, cleft the chief with his sword from his head to his loins. Like bees from hives, the barbarians, made furious by this act, swarmed out from the buildings, and gradually pushed the invaders out of the gates of the town into the plain. At that first encounter five Spaniards were killed and many more wounded—among them, De Soto.

The Indians were soon driven back into the town with great slaughter. They drove back the Spaniards in turn by clouds of arrows and tempests of stones, hurled from their wall-towers and loop-holes. For three hours there was a fierce hand-to-hand fight. Meanwhile the lagging body of Spaniards had arrived. The Indians, driven into the city, closed and barricaded the gates. These were soon forced. The Spaniards rushed in. A dreadful carnage ensued. Young women in large numbers fought side by side with the warriors, with equal bravery and skill. At length De Soto, shouting "Our Lady and Santiago!" made a furious charge with horse and foot, making fearful lines through the ranks of fighting men and women. Houses were fired, and the combatants were shrouded in blinding smoke.

As night closed in the contest ceased. Eighty-two Spaniards, the flower of the expedition, had perished, and it was estimated that 11,000 Alabamians fell in the struggle. The Spaniards remained near the ruined capital of the Mobilians. Foraging parties went out for supplies to Indian villages near, and captured many Indian maidens; and they learned from them that De Soto's squadron was in Pensacola Bay.

Such was the introduction of Europeans to the natives of Alabama.

For about a century and a half after this tragedy, no European's foot trod the soil of Alabama. In 1702, as we have observed (see *Louisiana*), Bienville transferred the French colony at Biloxi to Mobile. They landed at Dauphin Island, in Mobile Bay, where they constructed a fortified warehouse. Afterwards the greater part of the colony seated themselves on the shore of Mobile Bay, and called the settlement Mobile, after the tribe with whom De Soto fought at Maubila. Here was the seat of government for about nine

years, when, in 1711, they founded the town of Mobile, which is now the commercial metropolis of the State. The French made settlements on the Alabama River, among them (present) Montgomery, the political capital of the State. They also made treaties of friendship with the neighboring Indian tribes, but they were not exempted from wars with the natives.

Alabama, with Mississippi, was transferred to the English by the treaty at Paris in 1763. In 1783 it became a part of the territory of the United States. It was at first attached to Georgia and South Carolina, but in 1798 it formed the eastern portion of the Mississippi territory. Speculators, who were organized under the titles of "the South Carolina Yazoo Company," "the Virginia Yazoo Company," and "the Tennessee Company," contracted for immense tracts of land in Mississippi and Alabama, and some attempts at settlement were made. Trading posts had been established by the English and Americans, and became the nuclei of settlements and towns.

It was upon the soil of Alabama that Aaron Burr was arrested on a charge of treasonable designs, in 1807, taken to Fort Stoddard, near the confluence of the Alabama and Tombigbee rivers, and sent to Richmond for trial.

When the war of 1812-15 broke out, a large portion of Alabama was occupied by the powerful nation of Creek Indians. Tecumtha (see *Indiana*) had been among them and stirred them up to hostilities against the Americans, and they soon began a fierce war. In the summer of 1813 they fell upon Fort Mims, not far above the junction of the Alabama and Tombigbee rivers. It was a strong, stockaded work, and the commander of the garrison believed it to be strong enough to resist any attack from the barbarians. To it many families had moved as a place of safety from the hostile Creeks.

On a beautiful day in August, the 550 men, women and children in the fort were enjoying themselves, with a feeling of perfect security. A body of Creek warriors, led by Weathersford, a noted chief, attacked the post without warning. The garrison made a gallant resistance for three hours, but were nearly all slain. The Indians pressed into it, and at sunset 400 of the inmates of Fort Mims lay dead. Not a white woman or child escaped.

This massacre aroused the people of the whole South. General Jackson led troops against the Creeks, when several battles were fought. Notwithstanding the barbarians were encouraged and assisted by the British, they were finally overcome. With the battle at "Horse-shoe Bend," in 1814, when the Creeks lost about 600 men, the war ended, and the result was the absolute destruction of that once powerful nation. Only a remnant was left.

After the Creeks disappeared, the region of Alabama was rapidly settled. "The flood-gates of Virginia, the two Carolinas, Tennessee, Kentucky and Georgia were now hoisted," wrote an observer, "and the mighty stream of emigration poured through them, spreading over the whole domain of Alabama." It was erected into a Territory in 1818, with William W. Bibb as Governor. The territorial Legislature assembled at St. Stephens. In the summer of 1819 Alabama was admitted into the Union as an independent State. Its first General Assembly convened at Huntsville. Mr. Bibb was chosen first Governor of the new Commonwealth.

Alabama was one of the largest slave-holding States of the Union. Its political leaders took strong ground in favor of Secession in 1860. They were divided on the question of immediate "Secession" and "Co-operation." (See *Mississippi*.) At an election of members of a State Convention held late in December, the vote for "Co-operation" was about 11,000 more than for Secession.

The Convention assembled at Montgomery on January 7, 1861. Every county in the State was represented. There was a powerful infusion of Union sentiment exhibited in that body. A committee of thirteen drew up an Ordinance of Secession. It was longer than any other already adopted, but of similar tenor. It was submitted on the 10th. There was a minority report. Some members advocated a postponement of the question until after the 4th of March, with a hope of preserving the Union. A member from northern Alabama boldly declared his belief that the people of his section would not submit to any disunion scheme, when he and the people of his section were denounced as "tories, traitors and rebels."

The final vote on Secession was taken on January 11, and resulted in sixty-one ayes and thirty-nine nays. The Convention favored the formation of a confederacy of slave-holding States, and formally invited the others to send delegates to meet those of Alabama on February 4, at Montgomery, for consultation on the subject. A Secession flag, which the women of Montgomery had presented to the Convention, was raised over the Capital.

On the 4th of February, 1861, a Convention of delegates from six southern States assembled at Montgomery and formed a league called the "Confederate States of America." The Convention chose Jefferson Davis provisional President of the Confederacy, and Alexander H. Stephens Vice-President. A provisional Constitution was adopted, and the machinery of the Confederate Government was put in motion. Montgomery became its

capital, and so remained until the following summer, when the seat of Government was transferred to Richmond, Virginia.

In the war that ensued Alabama suffered much.* Several severe battles occurred within its domain, notably the naval contest in Mobile Bay, the capture of Mobile in 1865, and the capture of Selma and other towns by General Wilson, who made destructive raids through the State.

In June, 1865, a provisional Government for Alabama was appointed. In September a State Convention declared the Ordinance of Secession and the State debt null; passed an ordinance against slavery, and provided for an election of State officers, who were chosen in November. The Government thus constituted remained in force until superseded by military rule in 1867. In November of that year a Convention framed a new State Constitution, which was ratified February 4, 1868. All requirements being complied with, Alabama became entitled to representation in the National Congress. On July 14, 1868, the military relinquished to the civil authorities all legal control. The Fourteenth and Fifteenth amendments to the Constitution were ratified by Alabama, the latter on November 16th, 1870.

Cotton is the largest agricultural production of Alabama. It ranks sixth among the States in the production of Indian corn. In 1880, 699,654 bales of cotton were produced, and 25,451,278 bushels of corn. Its manufactures are not large, textile fabrics being the chief product of its manufacturing industries. In 1880 there were 1852 miles of railway in operation within the borders of the State.

The assessed value of taxable property in Alabama in 1880 was \$122,867,228. The State debt was over \$9,000,000.

The State had, in 1880, a school population of 376,649, of whom 174,485 were enrolled in the public schools. That year \$430,131 was expended by the State for public schools. There were four universities and colleges, and forty-nine academies and seminaries.

Alabama is a Creek word, signifying "Here we rest."



MAINE.

(1625.)



MAINE is the largest of the New England States, embracing an area of 33,040 square miles of territory. It is also the most easterly of the States of the Union. It lies between latitude $43^{\circ} 4'$ and $47^{\circ} 31'$ north, and longitude $66^{\circ} 45'$ and $71^{\circ} 6'$ west. On the north-west it is bounded by Quebec, Dominion of Canada; on the north by Quebec and New Brunswick; on the south and south-east by the Atlantic Ocean, and on the west by New Hampshire. Part of the Isle of Shoals, near New Hampshire, belongs to Maine. In 1880 the population of the State was 648,936, of whom 2084, including 625 Indians, were colored.

The seacoast of Maine is generally low, flat, and at some points marshy for ten or twenty miles in the interior, and is deeply indented with numerous bays and inlets, some of them forming excellent harbors. The Appalachian chain of mountains, which extends through the United States to Alabama, has its origin in the Province of New Brunswick, crosses Maine in a south-westerly direction, and joins the White Mountains in New Hampshire. This chain is broken into moderately lofty peaks. Mount Katahdin, near the centre of the State, rises to an altitude of 5385 feet. High up on these mountains are several beautiful lakes.

Mount Desert Island belongs to Maine. It is traversed by a range of thirteen granite peaks, one of these 2300 feet in height. It was settled by the French in 1608, who were driven away by the English in 1613, and settled by them in 1661. Maine is dotted with numerous lakes, some of which are very beautiful.

The coast of Maine was undoubtedly discovered by Scandinavian voyagers late in the 10th century. Possibly Verrazani cruised along its coasts in 1524, and Cabot in 1498. Gomez, a Spanish navigator, saw its shores in 1525, and in 1556 Father Thevet, a Roman Catholic priest, sailed in sight of its shores. The first attempt to plant a European settlement on the coast of

Maine was by De Monts in 1604, its shores having been trodden two years before by Bartholomew Gosnold. The French wintered near the site of Calais (1604-05) on the St. Croix River, and took possession of the river Kennebec. Captain Weymouth, an English navigator, was there in 1605, and kidnapped some of the natives; and in 1607 the Plymouth Company sent emigrants there to found a colony, but they did not remain long. They erected a fort and two or three buildings near the mouth of the Sagadahock River, on a small island. It is said that the colonists quarreled with the natives. The planters suffered much. Dissatisfied, they returned to England in 1608.

In 1614 the famous Captain John Smith, in behalf of the Plymouth Company, whose charter embraced the region between latitude 34° and 44° north,



WILLIAM KING, FIRST GOVERNOR OF MAINE.

landed on Muskegan Island, took possession of it, and thence explored the coast to Cape Cod. He gathered much information about the country and the inhabitants, and constructed a map of New England. In 1621 the Company granted to Sir William Alexander the country east of the St. Croix River, and established that stream as the eastern boundary of Maine.

Muskegan Island was settled in 1622, and Saco the next year. In the same year Sir Ferdinando Gorges and Captain John Mason, having obtained a grant of the territory between the Merrimack and the Kennebec rivers, planted a colony at the mouth of the Piscataqua, the first permanent occupation of the main land of Maine. (See *New Hampshire*.)

In 1629 the Plymouth Company, foreseeing its dissolution inevitable, parcelled out the territory in small grants. In the course of three years the

coast had been thus disposed of as far east as the Penobscot River. East of that river was claimed by the French, and was a subject of dispute a long time.

The Plymouth Company dissolved in 1635, when Sir Ferdinando Gorges took the whole region between the Piscataqua and the Kennebec, received a formal charter for it from Charles I., in 1639, and named it the *Province of Maine*, in compliment to the Queen, who owned the Province of Maine in France. Gorges sent his nephew, William Gorges, as Governor of his domain, who established the seat of Government at Saco, where, indeed, there had been an organized Government since 1623, when Robert Gorges was Governor under the Plymouth Company.

Gorges was appointed Governor-General of New England in 1639, and in 1640 he sent his son Thomas to be his lieutenant, who established himself at Agamenticus (now York), which, in 1642, was incorporated a city called "Georgiana." There the first representative Government in Maine was established in 1640. On the death of Gorges in 1647, the Province, descending to his heirs, was placed under four jurisdictions. Massachusetts, fearing this sort of dismemberment of the colony might cause the fragments to fall into the hands of the French, made claim to the territory, under its charter.

Many of the inhabitants of Maine preferred to be under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, and in 1652 a large number of the freeholders took the oath of allegiance to the Bay State. The latter province then assumed supreme rule in Maine, and continued it until the restoration of the Stuarts, in 1660, when Charles II., on the petition of the heirs of Gorges, sent over a commission to re-establish the authority of the grantees. For a long time Massachusetts resisted. Finally, in 1667, the Bay State purchased the interest of the claimants for \$60,000.

In 1674 the Dutch conquered the territory eastward of the Penobscot, including that of Acadia and Nova Scotia; and in 1676, Cornelis Steinwyck, a leading citizen of New York, was appointed Governor of the acquired territory by the Dutch West India Company. Meanwhile the ravages and horrors of King Philip's war had been experienced in the region of Maine. In the space of three months one hundred persons were massacred.

Then came disputes about the claims of the Duke of York to country between the Kennebec and St. Croix rivers, which, in 1683, had been constituted Cornwall county. The Duke sent Edmond Andros to rule that region, as Governor of New York and Maine. On the Duke's accession to the British

throne as James II., he made Andros Viceroy of all New England. The New England charters were declared void, and Andros ruled as a petty tyrant until the revolution of 1688, when the political status of the Bay State was restored. Thenceforth the history of Maine was identified with that of Massachusetts.

The Province of Maine suffered much from hostile operations of the combined French and Indians. In 1667 the young Baron de Castine established a fortified trading house at the mouth of the Penobscot River, where he married the daughter of a Penobscot Indian chief, and exercised much influence over the barbarians in that region. He taught them the use of firearms; and after he was made the bitter enemy of the English by their act of pillaging his trading establishment, he often joined the French and Indians in their attacks on the north-eastern frontier. With 200 Indians he assisted Colonel Iberville in the capture of Fort William Henry, which the English had built at Pemaquid.

One of the most active men in Maine toward the close of the 17th century was William Phipps, who was a native of the province, and who, by his own energy in maritime life, had acquired fortune and distinction. The King had knighted him. In the spring of 1690 he was placed in command of a naval force consisting of eight war vessels, that made a descent on Acadie and captured Fort Royal, now Annapolis. In the same year Phipps was in command of a fleet of thirty-four vessels, manned by 2000 New Englanders, that sailed for the St. Lawrence to assist in efforts to conquer Canada. Without charts or pilots he crawled cautiously around Acadie and up the St. Lawrence for about nine weeks. A swift Indian runner went from Pemmaquid to Montreal in time to warn the French Governor of his design, and the latter was prepared to meet the hostile fleet on its arrival. The expedition was a failure.

All through the colonial period, from the accession of William and Mary, until the Revolution, Maine suffered much from Indian forays, incited by the French on the eastern and northern borders.

During the old war for independence the coast towns of Maine were harrassed by British cruisers. Falmouth (now Portland) was burned, and other towns were sorely smitten.

After the Revolution there were frequent disputes between Massachusetts and the "District of Maine," as it was called, the latter desiring a separation from the Bay State. Conventions to that end were held at Portland

between 1784 and 1791, but nothing was accomplished until after the war of 1812-15. During that war the coasts of Maine were scenes of conflict between the Americans and British, especially in the region between Passamaquoddy Bay and the Penobscot River.

Commodore Hardy, in command of a British blockading squadron, captured Eastport, and this act was followed by the appearance of another squadron bearing 4000 British troops, led by Governor Sherbrooke of Nova Scotia. They captured Castine in Penobscot Bay, also Belfast, and then went up the Penobscot River to Hampden, a few miles below Bangor, to capture the American corvette *John Adams*, which, caught in that stream, had gone up the river for safety. The militia gathered, but fled when the British landed at Hampden. The commander of the *Adams* burned her to prevent her falling into the hands of the enemy. The invaders plundered the inhabitants and destroyed much property, when they returned to the sea, captured Machias, and then sailed for Halifax.

After the war the people of Maine again took measures to effect a separation from Massachusetts, and to have the district take a place as an independent State of the Union. Massachusetts was now willing, wishing to offset the governing power of the Southern States. The people finally adopted a State Constitution, and on March 15, 1820, Maine was admitted to the Union as a State, with William King as first Governor.

For more than half a century the Governments of the United States and Great Britain were involved in a controversy concerning the eastern boundary of Maine, which the treaty of 1783 did not accurately define. The dispute was settled by treaty in 1842, each party making concessions.

Maine was twice invaded by Confederates during the Civil War. On the night of June 29, 1863, the officers and crew of a Confederate privateer entered the harbor of Portland, captured the United States revenue cutter *Caleb Cushing*, and fled to sea with her, hotly pursued by two steamers manned by armed volunteers. Finding they could not escape with the cutter, the Confederates blew her up, and, taking to their boats were soon made prisoners. At mid-day, July 18, 1864, some Confederates, led by a Mississippi Confederate Captain, came from St. John, New Brunswick, and entered Calais, to rob the bank there. Having been forewarned by the American consul at St. John, the authorities were prepared for their reception. Three of the parties were arrested, when the remainder fled.

During the Civil War Maine contributed to the National army 71,558

soldiers and sailors. Of these 8446 were killed in battle or died from wounds and sickness, and 6642 were mustered out for disabilities resulting from wounds or disease.

In 1872-73 a colony of about 600 Swedes settled in Maine on 20,000 acres of land, on the Aroostook. They were aided by the State. They established schools, in which the chief study of the children is the English language, to fit them for citizenship.

Maine is a very productive agricultural State. In 1880 it produced 1,107,788 tons of hay, 8,000,000 bushels of potatoes, which are largely exported; 2,205,575 bushels of oats, and a large yield of wheat and buckwheat. The great production of Maine is timber—also, of wood-work in various forms, and ship-building. It has extensive fisheries, and is the only State in the Union wherein lobster-packing is an industry.

The estimated value of real and personal property in Maine, in 1886, was \$235,978,716. The State debt was \$7,405,557. It had 1013 miles of railroads in operation, which cost nearly \$40,000,000. The foreign commerce from Portland is quite extensive, and the coast-wise trade is large.

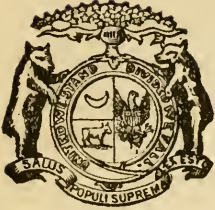
In 1880 there were 214,056 children of school age in Maine, of whom 149,827 were enrolled in public schools. Its total expenditure for public schools was \$991,297. Its largest city is Portland, with about 34,000 population in 1880. Its capital, Augusta, had 8665.

Maine is called "The Pine-tree State."



MISSOURI.

(1764.)



MISSOURI, one of the Central States of the Mississippi Valley, lies between latitude 36° and $40^{\circ}30'$ north, and longitude $89^{\circ}2'$ and $95^{\circ}44'$ west. It is wholly west of the Mississippi River, and embraces an area of 69,415 square miles. In 1880 it ranked fifth among the States in population and seventh in the value of its agricultural products.

Its population was 2,168,380, of whom 145,554, including ninety-one Chinese and 113 Indians, were colored. On its northern border is the State of Iowa; on the east the States of Illinois, Kentucky and Tennessee; on the south Arkansas, and on the west the Indian Territory, Kansas and Nebraska. The Mississippi River washes its entire eastern shores.

The Missouri River (which is really the Mississippi River), flowing from the north-west, divides the State into two unequal parts. The surface of the State, north of the Missouri River, is mostly level. South of that stream it is rolling, gradually rising in the south-west into a range of bold highlands, which extend across the State from north-east to south-west, with isolated peaks 500 to 1000 feet above their bases.

Missouri was a part of the vast region of Louisiana, and was known as Upper Louisiana. Its soil was first trodden by Europeans when Marquette and Joliet visited it in 1673. La Salle's expedition became acquainted with it. French traders made their way thither, and in 1719 they built Fort Orleans, at the mouth of the Osage River, about ten miles below Jeffersonville, the present capital of the State. These adventurers discovered lead mines in the vicinity, and in 1720 began working them. The discovery brought many other adventurers, and little settlements were made at various points—at St. Louis, Cape Girardeau, Saint Genevieve, and other places in that region.

By the treaty of Paris, in 1763, the whole vast territory passed into the possession of the English. In 1755, Genevieve, its oldest town, was founded;

but the most important, permanent and successful settlement was begun in 1764, when Saint Louis was founded. In 1762 a fur company was organized at New Orleans, for carrying on the fur trade with the western Indians. It was started by the Director General of Louisiana. A trading expedition was fitted out, and under the direction of Pierre Laqueste Laclede, the principal proprietor of the enterprise, it went to the Missouri region, and established its chief depôt on the site of the city of Saint Louis, which name Laclede gave to that locality. There furs were gathered from the regions extending eastward to Mackinaw and westward to the Rocky Mountains.

In 1775 St. Louis had become a famous depot of furs and a trading station. It had then about 800 inhabitants; now (1888) its population is



THOMAS H. BENTON, PROMINENT IN THE HISTORY OF MISSOURI.

probably nearly 400,000. It felt a touch of war during the period of the Revolution. In 1780 a force of 1500 British and Indians from the lakes laid siege to it, and invested it for a week, killing nearly seventy of the inhabitants, when the brave George Rogers Clarke (see *Illinois*) came to its relief with a competent force, and drove the assailants away.

Spain had taken possession of Louisiana, and retained it after the peace of 1783. The territory on the east banks of the Mississippi became the property of the United States, and citizens of the Republic crossed to the Spanish shore and built cabins there. The Spanish authorities forbade this trespass. This led to negotiations, which resulted in the free navigation of the Mississippi. Difficulties with the Spaniards continued. These were all ended by the purchase of Louisiana by the United States in 1803, when the

territory was divided. When, in 1812, Louisiana was admitted into the Union as a State, the name of the Upper District was changed to "Missouri Territory." Emigration had been flowing in, and at that time the Territory had a population of over 35,000.

In 1817, when the population of Missouri was fully 60,000, the Territorial Legislature applied to Congress for leave to frame a State Constitution, preliminary to its admission into the Union as an independent State. Then began the most important debate on the subject of slavery ever before known in that body.

On February 13, 1819, a bill was introduced into Congress to enable the Territory to enter the Union, when James Tallmadge, of New York, moved to insert a clause prohibiting any further introduction of slaves within its domain, and granting freedom to the children of those already there on their attaining the age of twenty-five years. After a vehement debate, lasting three days, the resolution was adopted—eighty-seven to seventy-six.

As a companion to the Missouri bill, another was presented (February 16) for the organization of the Territory of Arkansas, to which a provision was added, that slavery should not thereafter be introduced into any territory of the Union north of $36^{\circ} 30'$ north latitude, the northern boundary of the proposed Territory. In the spirit of compromise other propositions were made, which would give up to slavery the State of Missouri and all south of that Commonwealth.

This partition policy was warmly opposed by members from each section of the Union. They argued that slavery was either right or wrong, and that there could be no compromise. Extreme doctrines and foolish threats were uttered on both sides. Threats of dissolution of the Union were freely made. There was much adroit management by the party leaders, who used great dexterity in trying to avoid a compromise, for one party insisted upon Missouri entering, if at all, as a free-labor State; while the other party insisted that it should enter as a slave-labor State.

But compromise seemed to be the only door through which Missouri might enter. By adroit management a compromise bill, proposed by John W. Taylor of New York, was carried (March 2, 1820) by a vote of 134 against 42. John Randolph, of Virginia, denounced it as "dirty business," and gave to the northern members who voted for it the name of "dough-faces." President Monroe hesitated to sign the bill, and the matter was allowed to go over until the next session.

In February, 1821, Henry Clay moved a joint committee to consider the expediency of admitting Missouri into the Union; and if not expedient, what provision adapted to her actual condition ought to be adopted. Such committee was appointed, and acting upon its report a decision was finally reached by the adoption of a compromise (Feb. 27, 1821) substantially as proposed by Mr. Taylor in 1819, namely, that in all territory north of $36^{\circ} 30'$ (the southern boundary of the State of Missouri) slavery should not exist, but should be for ever prohibited north of that line. Missouri was admitted as a slave-labor State.

In the later debates on the famous "Missouri Compromise," there was much angry feeling displayed. Unwise men of the North and the South uttered the cry of disunion. A member from Georgia said, prophetically: "A fire has been kindled which all the waters of the ocean cannot put out, and which only seas of blood can extinguish."

The "seas of blood" shed in the late Civil War did, alone, extinguish it. Missouri was admitted into the Union on August 10, 1821. One of the most distinguished citizens of that State was Thomas H. Benton, one of its first representatives in the U. S. Senate. He was an able and enlightened statesman.

The Territory of Missouri was disturbed by the Indians of the upper Mississippi region, incited to hostilities by the British during the second war for independence (1812-15). They frequently committed depredations on the frontier settlements in Missouri. The people constructed several stockaded forts for their protection. The Indians were supplied with new rifles and ammunition by the British. Some encounters occurred, in which the invading barbarians were generally worsted by the armed settlers.

From its entrance into the Union, Missouri rapidly advanced in population and wealth, until it became involved, through its political leaders, in the meshes of Secession and the horrors of Civil War. A State Convention was assembled at Jefferson City on February 28, 1861, and on the second day of its session it adjourned to Saint Louis, where it re-assembled on March 4, with Sterling Price as President. He had been elected a member of the Convention as an Unionist. He soon afterwards became one of the most active Confederate military leaders in that region of the Union.

On the first day of the session, at Saint Louis, L. J. Glenn, an accredited commissioner from Georgia, was allowed to address the Convention. He urged the Missourians to join the Southern Confederacy; but public senti-

ment at Saint Louis, in and out of the Convention, was not congenial with the object of his mission. The population of the city was made up largely of New Englanders and Germans, who were loyal, while emigrants from the slave-labor States, especially from Virginia, composed the great body of the Secessionists. Glenn's remarks were greeted with hisses by spectators at the Convention, and he was officially informed that his mission was not agreeable. A Committee on "Federal Relations" reported against the Secession doctrines, and made declarations of attachment to the Union. The report deplored any attempt to coerce the "seceding States" into submission, and the employment of the military force of the State to assist the National Government. The Convention adopted the report, and adjourned to December following.

C. F. Jackson, a co-worker with the Secessionists, had been inaugurated Governor of Missouri in January, 1861. As he could not mould the action of the Convention to acquiescence in his views, he labored to that end with the Legislature. Determined to give the Secessionists control of Saint Louis, the strong Union city and the chief depository of the fire-arms of the State, he procured an act for the establishment of a metropolitan police in that city under five commissioners, to be appointed by the Governor. This was the first step towards measures which involved Missouri in the horrors of civil war.

With the sanction of the Governor, an attempt was made in May by the Secessionists to seize the United States arsenal at Saint Louis, which was guarded by 500 regular troops, under Captain Nathaniel Lyon, a loyal soldier. For weeks before the call of the President for troops, in April, 1861, the Secessionists had been drilled in the use of fire-arms in a building in the city, for which purpose the Governor had furnished them with State arms. They received commissions from him, and were sworn into the military service of the State. After that call they drilled openly. They were closely watched by the Unionists, who also formed military companies and drilled in the use of fire-arms. The latter were denounced by the Secessionists as "outlaws" preparing to make war upon Missouri. At the close of April the President ordered Captain Lyon to enroll them into the military service of the United States, not exceeding in number 1000 men. The Governor had ordered militia companies to assemble near Saint Louis, and encamp for a week.

The militia were encamped in the suburbs of Saint Louis. Lyon's volunteers occupied the Arsenal grounds. He soon discovered that the

Secessionist leaders, under the sanction of the Governor, were landing cannons and mortars at the city, in boxes marked "marble." The Captain was satisfied that it was time for him to act with vigor. On May 9, by a quick movement, he surrounded the militia camp with a strong force and cannons, and demanded of the commander the immediate surrender of the men and munitions of war under him, giving him only thirty minutes to deliberate. An armed mob of Secessionists, hearing of this, rushed out of the city to help the militia. They were too late. The militia had surrendered, 1200 strong, with all their arms and ammunition.

The Governor and Legislature made immediate preparations for war. Captain Lyon, commissioned a Brigadier-General, was made commander of the "Department of Missouri;" but the purse and the sword being in the hands of the Governor, the latter determined to wield the power of the State for the benefit of the Southern Confederacy. An official proclamation, issued by the Lieutenant-Governor at the close of July, declared Missouri separated from the Union; that the people were under the "military rule" of the "Confederate States," and that, by invitation of the Governor, General Pillow, of Tennessee, had already entered Missouri with troops. The Confederate Congress at Richmond authorized the admission of Missouri as a member of the "Confederate States of America." During a greater part of the war, men claiming to represent Missouri accepted seats in the Confederate Congress. The Missouri Legislature passed an Ordinance of Secession on October 28. So Missouri became involved in the Civil War, which inflicted fearful miseries upon her people.

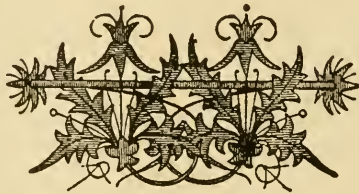
A State Convention assembled at St. Louis on January 6, 1865, and framed a new State Constitution, which provided for the emancipation of the slaves. It was ratified by the people in June. In 1869 the Legislature ratified the Fifteenth amendment of the National Constitution, and Missouri was re-admitted into the Union after a season of great suffering. The State had furnished to the Union army during the war from its loyal citizens 108,773 soldiers.

Missouri is one of the great grain-growing States of the Union. In 1880 it had 17,806 manufacturing establishments, in which \$130,000 were invested, yielding products valued at over \$300,000,000. There were 1,750,000 tons of coal mined in Missouri in 1880, and 95,000 tons of pig-iron were produced. In 1882 it had 4211 miles of railways in operation, which, with equipments, cost \$239,530,162.

The assessed valuation of taxable property in Missouri in 1880 was 529,218,474.

The State makes liberal provision for public instruction, expending for public schools, in 1880, \$3,092,332. It then had 723,484 children of school age, of whom 486,000 were enrolled in the public schools. There were then three normal schools in Missouri, and fourteen universities and colleges. Saint Louis is its largest city. Kansas city had 55,785 inhabitants in 1880; Jefferson city, its capital, had only 5,271.

Missouri is an Indian word, signifying "Muddy Water," a term applied to its great river.



ARKANSAS.

(1685.)



ARKANSAS, one of the South-western States of the Union and of the Mississippi Valley, lies between latitude 33° and $36^{\circ} 40'$ north, and longitude $89^{\circ} 40'$ and $92^{\circ} 42'$ west. Its area is 53,850 square miles, and it is embraced by the States of Missouri on the north; Tennessee and Mississippi on the east, from which it is separated by the Mississippi River; Louisiana on the south, and Texas and the Indian Territory on the west. The population of Arkansas in 1880 was 802,525, of whom, including 195 Indians and 133 Chinese, 210,994 were colored.

The eastern part of Arkansas for about 100 miles back from the Mississippi, is low and flat, with lakes, bayous and swamps. The whole region is subject to overflow, excepting occasional bluffs. The Ozark mountains, entering the State from Missouri, form a low range of hills in the north-west part of the State, never exceeding 2000 feet in height. The Ouachita Hills in the west and the Black Hills in the north are the only other considerable elevations. The Red River, clustered with historic associations of the Civil War, flows through the south-western part of the State, and is navigable throughout its entire course within the Commonwealth.

Arkansas was discovered by De Soto in 1541, who traversed the Gulf region from his entrance into Florida to the Mississippi River, which he found full to the brim. He and his followers, the latter reduced to a few, crossed that stream and landed near the site of Helena. Pushing westward, in a mad search for gold, he penetrated to the borders of the (present) Indian Territory. After spending a year in that region "prospecting" for the precious metals, the Spaniards returned to the Mississippi, and at the mouth of the Red River De Soto died, and was buried in the turbid flood of the Father of Waters.

Arkansas was next visited by Marquette and Joliet in 1673, who, at the mouth of the Arkansas River, learned that the Mississippi flowed into the

Gulf of Mexico instead of the "South Sea," or Pacific Ocean, as had been conjectured. With this information they returned to the Lake region.

Being a part of the vast French domain of Louisiana, Arkansas was early settled temporarily by French traders and adventurers at different points. Crozat, who received a grant of the whole domain early in the eighteenth century (see *Louisiana*), established a trading-post at Natchitoches, on the Red River; and John Law, the magnificent gambler and speculator, undertook to plant a colony of Germans on a tract of land twelve miles square on the Arkansas River.

After the admission of Louisiana into the Union, in 1812, Arkansas formed a part of the Missouri Territory, and so remained until 1819, when it was



JOHN LAW, PROMINENT IN THE HISTORY OF ARKANSAS.

erected into a separate Territory with its present name. The first Territorial Legislature convened in 1820 at Arkansas Post, on the Arkansas River, sixty miles from its mouth—a place settled by the French as a trading-post in 1685. Not long afterwards the seat of Government was removed to Little Rock, the present capital of the State.

The population of Arkansas had increased rapidly. In 1830 it numbered over 30,000. A territorial Convention at Little Rock, in 1836, framed a State Constitution, and on June 15, that year, Arkansas was admitted into the Union as an independent State with James S. Conway as its first Governor. The people were prosperous and happy until the Secession movement in 1860, put in motion by the political leaders in South Carolina and Georgia, disturbed the public mind in Arkansas and elsewhere. The people of that

State were warmly attached to the Union; but, unfortunately, the Governor and most of the political leaders were disloyal, and they spared no efforts to obtain the passage of an Ordinance of Secession.

For the purpose of effecting a revolution, a State Convention of delegates assembled at the capital (Little Rock) on March 4, 1861. It was composed of seventy-five members, of whom forty were staunch Unionists, and it was evident that a Secession ordinance could not be passed. The friends of that measure then proposed a plan that seemed fair. A self-constituted committee reported to the Convention an ordinance providing for an election to be held on the first Monday in August, at which the legal voters of the State should decide by ballot for "Secession" "or Co-operation." If a majority should vote for "Secession," that fact should be considered as instructions to the Convention at its next session to pass an ordinance to that effect; if for "Co-operation," then measures were to be used, in conjunction with the border slave-labor States "yet in the Union," for the settlement of existing difficulties.

The next session of the Convention was fixed for August 17. The above-named proposition seemed so fair, that it was agreed to by unanimous vote, when the Convention was adjourned, subject to the call of the President, who was known as an Union man.

Taking advantage of the excitement caused by the attack on Fort Sumter in April, and President Lincoln's call for troops to suppress the rising insurrection, the Governor of Arkansas (Rector) and his disloyal associates adopted measures for arraying Arkansas among the seceding States. To the President's call upon Arkansas for one regiment, Governor Rector responded:

"In answer to your requisition for troops from Arkansas to subjugate the Southern States, I have to say that none will be furnished. The demand is only adding insult to injury. The people of this Commonwealth are free-men, not slaves, and will defend, to the last extremity, their honor, their lives and their property against Northern mendacity and usurpation."

These defiant words were followed by immediate concurrent action. In violation of the pledge of the Convention, that the whole matter should be determined by the people in August, the President of the Convention was induced by the Governor to call that body together on the 6th of May. Seventy delegates were present. An Ordinance of Secession, already prepared, was presented to it at three o'clock in the afternoon, when the hall of the House of Representatives, in which the meeting was held, was crowded

by an excited multitude. It was moved that a vote on the Ordinance should be taken, without debate.

The President, a "mild-mannered" man, evidently overawed by the aspect of the crowd before him, when the question was put, and decided in the negative by a considerable majority, declared that it was passed. Then a vote on the Ordinance of Secession was taken, and a majority appeared against it, when the President, who seems to have become a plastic instrument in the hands of the Secessionists, immediately arose, and in the midst of the cheers of the people, vehemently urged the Unionists to change their votes to "aye" immediately. "It being evident," wrote an eye-witness, "that a large number of the crowd in the room were prepared to compel them to do so," the terrified Unionists complied, with one exception—Isaac Murphy—who was compelled to fly for his life. In 1864 the Unionists of Arkansas rewarded Murphy for his fidelity by electing him Governor of the State.

In this way the Arkansas Ordinance of Secession was adopted by unanimous vote. Then the Convention authorized the Governor to call out 60,000 men, if necessary, for military duty. The State was divided into two military divisions. The Convention also passed an ordinance confiscating all debts due from citizens of Arkansas to persons residing in free-labor States, and all the personal property belonging to such persons in Arkansas at the time of the passage of the Ordinance.

Measures were immediately taken to attach to the Secession cause, by persuasion or coercion, the powerful Indian tribes residing in the Territory adjoining Arkansas, who were about 40,000 in number. Jefferson Davis, President of the Confederacy, ordered three regiments of these Indians to be recruited, and commissioned Albert Pike, a native of New England, but long a resident of Arkansas, to make a treaty with them to that effect. The three regiments were raised, and under Pike, who was commissioned a Brigadier-General, they fought the National troops at the battle of Pea Ridge, among the Ozark Mountains, in Arkansas. So it was that Arkansas was placed in the attitude of an enemy of the Republic, of which it had been a constituent part only twenty-five years.

On the 30th of October, 1863, a meeting of loyal citizens, representing about twenty counties, was held at Fort Smith, to take measures for re-organizing the State Government. In January following a Convention, composed of representatives of forty of the seventy-five counties in the State, assembled at Little Rock, and framed a loyal Constitution, which was ratified by a vote

of the people in March, 1864. Members of the Legislature were elected, and in April a State Government was organized. In 1867 military rule was established in Arkansas, which, with Mississippi, constituted a military district.

On January 7, 1868, a new Constitution was framed by a Convention at Little Rock, which was ratified by a small majority in March. On June 22 Congress declared Arkansas entitled to representation in that body, when the administration of the Government was transferred from the military to the civil authority. The people of the State had suffered much during the Civil War.

The chief agricultural productions of Arkansas are cotton, Indian corn, wheat, oats and tobacco. In 1880 it produced 22,295 tons of hay. The cotton crop that year yielded 608,256 bales. There were harvested 1,269,715 bushels of wheat, 24,156,417 bushels of corn, 2,219,822 bushels of oats, and 970,226 pounds of tobacco. The total value of the principal crops was \$88,000,000. Much live stock is raised in Arkansas. Its total value, in 1880, was estimated at \$20,472,425.

Arkansas is becoming a manufacturing State. In 1880 there were 1200 manufacturing establishments, employing a capital of about \$3,000,000. The value of the products was estimated at nearly \$7,000,000. There were 948 miles of railroads in operation in the State.

The assessed valuation of the real and personal property in the State in 1880 was \$86,349,354. It expended for public instruction that year \$382,537. There were 2768 public schools, with 108,236 pupils. There were 237,000 children of school age in the State, and there were five universities and colleges and a number of normal schools.

Arkansas is an Indian word, meaning "Bow of Smoking Waters." It has also been called "The Bear State," from the number of these animals found there formerly. Its largest town is Little Rock, the capital, which had a population of 13,138 in 1880.



MICHIGAN.

(1670.)



MICHIGAN is one of the North Central States of the Union, and is divided by the Strait of Mackinaw into an upper and lower peninsula. The Upper Peninsula is bounded on the north by the dividing line between the United States and the British possessions; on the south by Lake Huron, the Strait of Mackinaw, Lake Michigan, and the State of Wisconsin; and on the north-west by Lake Superior. The eastern boundaries of the two peninsulas are the north-eastern channel of the Strait connecting Lake Superior and Lake Huron, the St. Clair River, the St. Clair Lake, the Detroit River and Lake Erie. The southern boundary of the Lower Peninsula is a part of the States of Ohio and Indiana, and of the western, Lake Michigan.

The State is nearly surrounded by lakes, from which circumstance it derives its name—our Anglicized form of an Indian word which signifies the “Lake Country.” The State contains an area of 58,915 square miles, and a population, in 1880, of 1,636,937, of whom 22,377, including 7249 Indians, were colored. The Commonwealth lies between latitude $41^{\circ} 42'$ and $48^{\circ} 22'$ north, and longitude $82^{\circ} 26'$ and $90^{\circ} 30'$ west.

The Southern Peninsula may be characterized as a vast undulating plain. The water-shed is nearer Lake Huron than Lake Michigan, and the country slopes gently toward both. The Upper Peninsula has a rugged and mountainous aspect, and abounds in vast mineral wealth. The climate of both sections, tempered by the surrounding lakes, is less severe in winter than that of any other portion of the country in the same latitude.

Michigan was discovered and first settled by French traders and missionaries. So early as 1610 Detroit was visited by Frenchmen. In 1630 French missionaries established a station on Lake Huron, and in 1641 some Jesuits reached the Falls of St. Mary. In 1660 a mission station was founded on Lake Superior within the bounds of the Upper Peninsula. A mission was estab-

lished at Sault-Ste.-Marie in 1668, by Marquette and other Jesuit fathers; and in 1671 he founded another Jesuit mission on the main land in the Upper Peninsula, north of the island of Mackinaw, where he built a chapel and dedicated it to St. Ignatius. He also laid the foundations of a fort.

The Jesuits built their first chapel on the soil of the Lower Peninsula, on a bay of Lake Huron. It was dedicated to St. Joseph, and they called it "the cradle of the church." These missionaries were so successful in their efforts, that nearly all the Hurons become converted to Christianity.

The French Government, desirous of fostering the fur trade, sent soldiers in 1677 to garrison trading stations and to protect the missionaries; and the



STEVENS THOMPSON MASON, FIRST GOVERNOR OF MICHIGAN.

cross and the lilies of France were soon spread throughout a large portion of the valleys of the Ohio and Mississippi, south of the great lakes.

In 1701 Detroit was founded by a little French colony, led by the Sieur de la Motte Cordillac, who was appointed Governor of the community. They erected a fort called Pontchartrain, and from time to time the colony was increased by emigrants from Montreal and Quebec.

When in 1760 Canada was conquered by the English, the latter took possession of the forts at Detroit, Mackinaw, and at other places in the French dominion, much to the disgust of the Indians, who had become attached to the French as allies in war, and their spiritual guides. They disliked the English because they had been their enemies. Among the barbarian leaders in the Lower Peninsula of Michigan was Pontiac, an Ottawa chief, who endeavored to confederate the Indian tribes in an effort to exterminate the

English. He said: "If the French must go, no other white nation shall occupy our land."

The fort at Detroit was garrisoned by a few English troops in 1762. Pontiac feigned friendship for the English and gained their confidence. Under the pretext of holding a friendly council with the commander of the fort, he entered that little fortress on a bright May morning in 1763, with about 300 followers, each having weapons concealed under his blanket. Having been warned of danger, the commander averted it that time by postponing the council for a few days. When the barbarians retired the gates of the fort were closed against them, and for more than a year Pontiac laid siege to the fortress.

At Fort Mackinaw similar treachery was practised with success. A company of ball-players seized the commander, who stood outside the fort watching their sport, when squaws furnished the Indians with hatchets, which they carried under their blankets. Then the Indians rushed through the open gate of the fort and murdered many of the soldiers.

An unwise movement was made at the fort at Detroit in July. A force of 240 men went out from the fort at night, and attempted to surprise Pontiac at his camp, not far north of the present city of Detroit. The wily chief was on the alert. He went out to meet his foes and furiously assailed them. They were compelled to make a precipitate retreat, leaving twenty of their comrades dead, and bearing away forty who were wounded. The commander of the English was slain, and his scalp was his slayer's trophy.

Michigan, being included in the bounds of Canada, was not the scene of any stirring events during the old war for independence. Although it was claimed to be included in the territory ceded by Great Britain by the treaty of 1783, it was not finally surrendered until 1796. Then it was a part of the North-western Territory, established in 1787 (see *Ohio*). When this territory was divided, in 1800, the eastern portion, which included Michigan, was called Indiana Territory (see *Indiana*), and General William Henry Harrison was appointed Governor.

In 1805 Indiana Territory was divided, and Michigan was erected into a separate Territory. William Hull, a meritorious officer of the Revolution, was appointed Governor, and retained that position until 1812. Nineteen days before he entered upon his duties, Detroit was destroyed by fire. Two years afterwards a new town was laid out, on a handsome and extensive plan, according to which the present fine city was built.

When, in June, 1812, the United States declared war against Great Britain, Governor Hull was commissioned a Brigadier-General, and put in chief command of the forces in the north-west. He was instructed to invade Canada, an undertaking which resulted in disaster to Michigan Territory. Hull doubted the policy of invasion and protested against it, but obeyed orders.

Early in July, 1812, Hull crossed the Detroit River with his whole force, and took possession of the western portion of Canada, with the intention of attacking Fort Malden, eighteen miles below. Sir Isaac Brock, Governor of Upper Canada, hastened, with such forces as he could speedily gather, to repel the invasion. Hull was very cautious, and hesitated to move forward. This caution was increased by the news that a large force of British and Indians had captured the fort on Mackinaw Island; also that Fort Dearborn, the site of (present) Chicago, was menaced by hostile Indians. (See *Illinois*.)

Brock arrived at Malden on August 13. Tecumtha and his warriors were on an island opposite that post. Brock held a conference with them on the following morning, and gave them pleasure by telling them that he had come to assist them in driving the Americans from their hunting grounds north of the Ohio. Meanwhile Hull, alarmed by the defeat of an escort of prisoners destined for the fort at Detroit, had abandoned Sandwich, recrossed the river and taken a position of defense at Detroit under the shelter of the fort.

Brock, reinforced at Malden, and joined by Tecumtha and his thousand dusky followers, marched to Sandwich, and there planted a battery of heavy guns, which, from that elevated shore, commanded the fort and town of Detroit. The American artillerists begged permission to open fire on the battery, and Captain Snelling asked permission to cross over in the night and capture the British works. Hull would not allow any demonstration against the enemy, and the latter, perceiving their advantage, prepared for an assault on the American works.

Hull had been deceived by letters, intended to be intercepted, showing large and immediate reinforcements coming to Brock's army from the north. The militia in that army had been dressed in the scarlet uniforms of the British regulars, and were so displayed by marching and counter-marching that they appeared like a numerous and regularly disciplined army. Hemmed in on every side, as he thought, his provisions scarce, no prospects of receiving reinforcements and supplies from Ohio, the fort thronged with trembling women and children, and decrepit old men of the village and the surrounding

country, who had fled to the fort for protection, Hull humanely determined to surrender the fort rather than increase the danger of slaughter by the barbarians, exasperated by a defense which might be futile.

On August 15, Brock sent a summons to Hull for an immediate surrender of the post, in which was a covert threat of letting loose the bloodthirsty Indians in case of resistance. Hull's whole effective military force there did not exceed 1,000 men. He kept the flag that bore the summons waiting fully two hours, for his innate bravery and patriotism bade him refuse and fight, while his fear of dreadful consequences to his army and the people, bade him surrender.

Hull's troops were confident of their ability to hold the fort and defeat the enemy, and Hull finally refused to surrender. Active preparations for defense were made. The British opened a cannonade and bombardment from their elevated camp, which was kept up until near midnight. The firing was returned with spirit. Early the next morning the British crossed the river and landed, without opposition, a little below the village, while Tecumtha and 700 warriors, who had crossed two miles below, took post in the woods on the left. Their right was protected by a war vessel in the river.

The soldiers outside of the fort prepared to meet the foe. When the latter had approached to within 500 yards of the American line, Hull sent an imperative order for his soldiers to retreat within the overcrowded fort. The infuriated soldiers reluctantly obeyed. While the enemy were preparing to storm the works, Hull, without consulting any one, hoisted a white flag. A capitulation was soon agreed upon. At noon on August 16, 1812, the fort, the garrison, and the Territory of Michigan were surrendered to the British, with arms of every kind, ammunition, stores, and an armed brig.

This surrender produced intense indignation throughout the Republic, and the people of Ohio, Indiana and Kentucky flocked to the standard of General Harrison the next year, with a determination to recover Michigan. Four thousand Kentuckians under General Shelby joined Harrison. The gallant Commodore Perry, co-operating with him, gained a splendid victory on Lake Erie in September. The command of Lake Erie secured, Harrison, with a strong force, invaded Canada. Landing below Malden, late in September, he drove the British from that post and pursued them to the interior, where, near the banks of the Thames, on the 2d of October, he signally defeated the enemy. Tecumtha was killed in that battle.

This victory secured all that Hull had lost, and more. It broke up the

Indian confederacy in the north-west. "Such a victory," said a member of the House of Representatives in his place, "would have secured to a Roman general, in the last days of the Republic, the honors of a triumph."

The public lands in Michigan were first offered for sale in 1818, from which time its main growth in population and wealth may be dated. Colonel Cass was appointed Governor after its recovery. In 1819 the Territory was authorized to send a delegate to Congress. In 1823 a Legislative Council of nine members was appointed by the President of the United States, from eighteen persons elected by the people of the Territory, and they and the Governor constituted the Government. A Constitution was adopted in 1835, a State Government was elected, and on June 15 that year Michigan was admitted to the Union, conditionally, as an independent State. It was not formally declared a State by act of Congress until January 26, 1837. The delay was occasioned by disputes with Ohio concerning the southern boundary of Michigan. Its admission in 1835 had been made on condition that it should accept the claims of Ohio. A new Constitution was framed and ratified in 1850. The seat of Government was removed from Detroit to Lansing in 1847.

The action of Michigan was highly patriotic during the Civil War. It furnished to the National army 90,747 soldiers, of which number 14,823 perished in battle or by sickness.

Michigan (especially its Lower Peninsula) is a famous agricultural State. In 1880 its husbandry produced 32,461,452 bushels of Indian corn; 35,532,543 bushels of wheat; 18,190,793 bushels of oats; and 10,924,111 bushels of potatoes. In wool it ranks third among the wool-producing States.

Michigan is specially rich in minerals, the Upper Peninsula with copper and the Lower with coal. The copper mines near Lake Superior are among the richest in the world, the copper belt being 120 miles in length, and from two to six miles in width. The coal is bituminous. Salt of excellent quality is found near Saginaw Bay.

Michigan is rich in live stock. In 1880 it had 378,778 horses; 891,631 horned cattle; 2,189,389 sheep; and 965,000 swine. Its people are extensively engaged in manufactures, especially in products from timber. In 1880 it manufactured 12,425,385 bushels of salt, and its copper mines yield annually over \$9,000,000 in value. The total value of her manufactured products in 1880, was \$150,715,000. Her lake fisheries are extensive.

In 1880 there were 3607 miles of railroads in operation in Michigan, cost-

ing \$136,000,000. The assessed valuation of taxable property, real and personal, in 1881, was \$810,000,000. In 1880 the State expended for public schools \$3,112,468. There were 506,221 children of school age, of whom 362,489 were enrolled in the public schools. There were nine colleges and universities. Detroit is its largest city, having 133,269 inhabitants in 1880, its capital, Lansing, having 9779.

Michigan has been nicknamed "The Wolverine State," from the abundance formerly of wolverines, a small carnivorous animal of the glutton species.



FLORIDA.

(1365.)



FLORIDA is mostly a vast peninsula between the Gulf of Mexico and the Atlantic Ocean, and projects farther south than any other State of the Republic. It lies between $24^{\circ} 30'$ and 31° north latitude, and $79^{\circ} 48'$ and $87^{\circ} 38'$ west longitude. It embraces an area of 58,680 square miles. Its population in 1880 was 269,493, of whom 126,888 were colored, including 180 Indians. On its northern borders lie the States of Georgia and Alabama; on the south is the Gulf of Mexico and the Strait of Florida; on the east is the Atlantic Ocean; and on the west is the Gulf of Mexico and the Perdido River.

The whole State of Florida is nearly level, with no elevation more than 200 feet above the sea. Its southern half is only a few feet above tide-water. The land in Florida may be designated as high hummock, low hummock, savanna and pine lands. The high hummocks are timbered with live and other oaks, magnolias and laurel. On the low hummocks live and water oaks abound. The "Everglades" cover an area of 160 miles in length and sixty in breadth. They appear to be a vast, shallow lake, with innumerable islands of all sizes. The water is filled with long, rank grass, and the islands occasionally present a huge pine tree and a palmetto tree. The central portion of the peninsula is somewhat elevated, being a water-shed, and seldom attaining an altitude of more than 170 feet above the ocean.

It is supposed by some that Florida was seen by Europeans before the year 1500; but the first known discoverer was John Ponce de Leon, an old Spaniard, Governor of the Island of Porto Rico, who, in the early spring of 1512, sailed northward in quest of a fabled fountain, the waters of which would transform old age into youth, and ugliness into beauty. The fragrance of flowers on a west wind lured the navigators, and they landed on a beautiful shore on Easter Sunday, at the site of (present) St. Augustine. Partly on account of the profusion of blossoms, the hoary Spaniard called

the place Florida, and penetrated its wilds in a fruitless search for the magic fountain. He had formally taken possession of the country in the name of his sovereign. In 1514 he was made Governor of the "Island of Florida." He did not attempt to take possession until 1521, when he and his followers were driven back to their ships by hostile natives. The leader of the Castilians was slain.

Attempts at settlement were made by other Spanish adventurers before 1528, when Pamphilo Narvaez landed at Tampa Bay, with 440 men. Following the cruel example of the Spaniards in Cuba, in their treatment of the barbarians, he aroused the fierce anger of those of Florida. He dreamed of finding cities burdened with gold, but he found little but exasperated ene-



M. D. MOSLEY, FIRST GOVERNOR OF FLORIDA.

mies. Treachery met his cruelty at every point. The swift arrows of the barbarians diminished the number of his followers daily, and he attempted to flee from the country with a remnant in boats. His men died of starvation, day after day, on the waters of the Gulf, and finally a "norther" dispersed his little flotilla, and Narvaez was never heard of afterwards. De Vaca, the "Secretary" of the expedition, was the only one who escaped and returned to Spain.

De Soto explored Florida, thoroughly, in search of gold, and perished on the banks of the Mississippi in 1542 (see *Arkansas*). He did not plant a colony. That important act was performed by Admiral de Coligni of France, who, in 1562, sent a company of Huguenots, or French Protestants, to found an asylum from persecution in the wilds of America. Led by John Ribault,

the immigrants, few in number, landed at the mouth of St. Mary's River, in Florida, and were kindly received by the natives. The French were delighted with everything they beheld—the climate, the beauty of the flowery country, birds in gay plumage and sweet song, and “people of the finest forms and kindest natures.” They set up a stone column, and took possession of the country in the name of the King of France. A few days later they sailed northward to the South Carolina coast.

After the bitter Civil War in France, between the Protestants and Roman Catholics, Coligni sent three ships, with emigrants, in the spring of 1564, who planted a colony on the bank of the St. John's River, in Florida. There were too many “gentlemen,” who would not soil their hands with labor. Finally, some of the accompanying soldiers and sailors, in two of the vessels, sailed for the West Indies and became pirates. Threatened with starvation, the remainder of the colonists had resolved to return to France, when Ribault appeared with seven ships, laden with supplies and a fresh colony of men, women and children, at near the close of 1565.

A Spanish naval expedition, under Menendez, sent to destroy the Huguenots, soon appeared on the coast. They proceeded to found a settlement and build a fort, which they named St. Augustine. Thence the Spaniards marched overland, and massacred a greater portion of the Huguenots on the St. John's. Some of them were hanged on trees, over whom was placed the inscription :

“NOT AS FRENCHMEN, BUT AS LUTHERANS.”

A fiery French Roman Catholic—De Gournes—proceeded to avenge this outrage. He sold his property to others, meaning to fit out an expedition to Florida. He arrived in the spring of 1568, and, joined by the natives, attacked the forts on the St. John's occupied by Spaniards. They were captured and every Spaniard was slaughtered excepting a few, who were hanged on the same trees on which the Huguenots were suspended. Over them was placed the inscription :

“NOT AS SPANIARDS AND MARINERS, BUT AS TRAITORS, ROBBERS AND MURDERERS.”

The Huguenot colony disappeared, but the Spaniards made a permanent settlement at St. Augustine. It remained the sole settlement in that region for more than a century, when, in 1696, Spaniards formed a settlement at

Pensacola and one or two other places. The English, who laid claim to the north-western portion of the peninsula, made frequent inroads upon the Spanish settlements.

In 1702 an expedition from South Carolina attacked Fort St. Mark, at Pensacola; and subsequently the Georgians, led by Oglethorpe, made war upon them there and at other places. (See *Georgia*.)

By the treaty of Paris in 1763, Spain ceded the whole of Florida to Great Britain, in exchange for the Island of Cuba, which the latter had recently conquered. The territory was now divided into East and West Florida, the Appalachian River being the dividing line. Settlers from South Carolina went into the territory, and emigrants from Italy, the Islands of Minorca and Majorca in the Mediterranean, and Greece, were induced to settle there. By these emigrants the colony of New Smyrna was founded by Dr. Trumbull, of Charleston, in 1767. They numbered about 1500. They were settled on a tract of 60,000 acres, about sixty miles south of St. Augustine, where they were engaged in the cultivation of indigo and the sugar-cane. Trumbull reduced them to slavery, and kept them in subjection for a while by troops, the English Governor of the territory being his business partner. On the arrival of a new Governor, nine years after the founding of the settlement, the petition of the poor settlers was heard and heeded, when they were released from the cruel tyranny. Nearly two-thirds of the colonists had then perished. The survivors went to St. Augustine.

During the old war for independence, the trade of the southern colonies was seriously interfered with by privateers fitted out in Florida by the British, who also incited the Indians in that region to make war on the Americans. In 1778 the British General, Prevost, invaded Georgia from Florida, and captured Savannah. The Spaniards invaded West Florida, and in May, 1781, seized Pensacola, and occupied a considerable portion of the province.

By the treaty of 1783, Florida was retroceded to Spain, and the western boundary was defined, when a greater portion of the inhabitants emigrated to the United States. The cession of Louisiana by France to the United States in 1803, gave the latter a claim to the country west of the Perdido River, which now comprises the extreme southern end of Alabama. The United States Government took possession of it in 1811, when some irritation ensued.

In the second war for independence with Great Britain, the Spaniards at Pensacola favored the British, and allowed an expedition to be fitted out

there against the Americans. They also encouraged the hostility of the Seminole-Creek nation against Americans. General Jackson led an army into Florida, without the advice of his tardy Government, and in November, 1814, with 3000 troops, he captured Pensacola and the forts there. A British naval force in the harbor fled in haste, and the Creeks were alarmed and scattered.

Pensacola was again taken by General Jackson in 1818, with Fort St. Mark, but they were restored to Spain. Diplomatic negotiations resulted in the cession of Florida by Spain to the United States in February, 1819, on the extinction of the various American claims for spoliation, for the satisfaction of which the United States agreed to pay to the claimants \$5,000,000. The boundary between Florida and Louisiana was adjusted. There was great delay in the Spanish ratification of the treaty, and it did not take place until 1821, the ratified treaty being received by the President in February that year.

Emigrants from the Southern States now flocked into Florida, and the Territory was organized in 1822 and begun to prosper, in spite of many obstacles. The powerful Seminole Indians, made up of two bands of the Creek nation, occupied the best lands in the Territory, and had fiercely resisted the white people from the beginning of their intrusion on the domain of the barbarians. The war made upon them by General Jackson, in 1818, had intensified their hatred of the white people, and in 1835 the Seminoles, guided by Micanopy, their chief sachem, and led by their principal chief, Osceola, began a distressing warfare upon the frontier settlements of Florida.

The immediate cause of the outbreak was an attempt by the National Government to remove the Seminoles to the wilderness beyond the Mississippi River. In May, 1832, some of the Seminole and Creek chiefs, in council, agreed to emigrate. Other chiefs, and the great body of the nation, refused to comply with the terms of the treaty which had been made.

In 1834 President Jackson sent a military force to Florida to make a forcible removal of the Seminoles, if necessary. Osceola, eloquent and brave, stirred up the nation to resistance. One day the insolent bearing and offensive words of Osceola caused the commander of the troops to put him in irons for a day. The dusky warrior's wounded pride called for vengeance, and a war begun which lasted about seven years. By bravery, skill, strategy, and treachery, Osceola overmatched United States troops sent against him, and commanded by some of the best officers in the service.

Osceola struck the first blow in December, 1835. With all the cunning of a Tecumtha, and the heroism of a Philip, he began the war by an act of perfidy. While professing loyalty to treaty stipulations, his followers were engaged in murdering the unsuspecting white inhabitants on the borders of the Everglades, which furnished a secure hiding-place for the Indians. Major Dade, with one hundred soldiers, on his way from Fort Brooke, at the head of Tampa Bay, to join another body of troops, fell into an ambuscade, when he and all his followers, excepting four, were massacred. The four men afterwards died from the effects of the encounter. On the same day, Osceola and a small war-party stealthily attacked the commanding general (Wiley Thomson) and five others, who were dining, and killed them all. Osceola scalped the General with his own hand.

The Creeks helped their brethren, the Seminoles, by attacking white settlers within their own domain. Being successful, they extended their forays into Georgia, attacking mail-carriers on horseback, stage-coaches on the land and steamboats on the rivers. They finally assaulted villages, and thousands of men, women and children were compelled to fly in terror from their homes.

General Winfield Scott, then in command in the South, prosecuted the war against the Creeks with so much vigor, that they were speedily subdued; and during the summer of 1836, thousands of their men removed to lands west of the Mississippi River.

Hostilities with the Seminoles continued. Finally, in the spring of 1837, several chiefs appeared before the commander of the troops in Florida, and signed a treaty which was intended to secure peace and the departure of the Seminoles to the home prepared for them beyond the great river. The wily Osceola caused this treaty to be violated and the war was renewed.

In October, 1837, Osceola and seventy warriors appeared at the camp of General Jesup, under the protection of a flag, to hold a friendly conference. Jesup determined no longer to trust the perfidious chief. The conference was held in a grove of magnolias, in a dark swamp. As the chief arose to speak, Jesup gave a signal, when two or three of the soldiers rushed forward, and, seizing Osceola, bound him with strong cords. He made no resistance, but several of his excited followers drew their gleaming hatchets from their belts. Jesup's troop restrained them, and they were dismissed. Osceola was sent a prisoner to Charleston, where he was confined in Fort Moultrie. There he died of fever in January, 1839.

Although the capture of Osceola was a serious blow to the Seminoles, they continued to fight for their country under other leaders, notwithstanding almost 9,000 troops were in their territory at the close of 1839, but peace was not permanently secured until 1842, when the Seminoles were persuaded to emigrate to the country west of the Mississippi. The whole body of those remaining in Florida removed in 1858.

On March 8, 1845, Florida was admitted into the Union as an independent State. The danger from Indian forays being removed, it quite rapidly grew in population and wealth, until the Secessionists of the Commonwealth plunged it into the vortex of Civil War in 1861. Its political leaders were among the earliest in the Union to make seditious utterances and perform disloyal acts. Her representatives in Congress were anxious for Secession, and forward in assumptions of sovereignty for their little State.

A Convention was held at Tallahassee, the State capital, on January 3, 1861. The members numbered 169, about one-third of whom were "Co-operationists" (see *Mississippi*). The Legislature of Florida, prepared to cooperate with the Convention, assembled at the same place on the 5th. On the 10th the Convention adopted an Ordinance of Secession by a vote of sixty-two against seven. It was declared, in the preamble, that "all hopes of preserving the Union upon terms consistent with the safety and honor of the slave-holding States," had been "fully dissipated." It was also declared that by the ordinance Florida had become a "sovereign and independent nation."

Though the State was declared "out of the Union," its representatives in Congress did not leave their seats there for some time afterwards. Their reason for remaining was avowed to be to prevent the passage, by their votes, of force, loan and volunteer bills, "which would put Mr. Lincoln in immediate condition for hostilities;" also, by remaining in their places until the 4th of March, they "might keep the hands of Mr. Buchanan tied, and disable the Republicans from effecting any legislation which would strengthen the hands of the incoming administration."

The Legislature authorized the issue of Treasury notes to the amount of \$500,000, and defined treason against the State as holding of office under the National Government, and punishable with death. The Governor of the State (Perry) had already made arrangements, before the passage of the Ordinance of Secession, for the seizure of the forts, navy-yard at Pensacola, and other property of the United States, within the borders of Florida. The people of the Commonwealth suffered much during the war that ensued.

On July 13, 1865, William Marvin was appointed provisional Governor of Florida, by the President of the United States, and on the 28th of October a State Convention assembled at Tallahassee and repealed the Ordinance of Secession. For a while the State was under military control. A new Constitution was ratified by the people in May, 1868; and after the adoption of the Fourteenth amendment to the National Constitution in June, Florida was re-admitted to the Union, which it had first entered as a State only twenty-three years before.

Florida produces every kind of cereal, cotton, rice, sugar, potatoes and tobacco. Its chief fruit production is oranges, of which a vast quantity is raised.

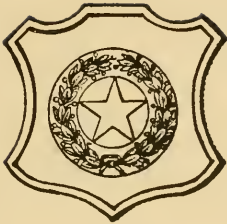
There were 550 miles of railroads in operation in Florida in 1880. The assessed valuation of real and personal property was \$40,000,000. In 1880 there were 31,477 pupils in average attendance on the public schools.

The most populous town in Florida in 1880 was Key West, containing 9890 inhabitants. Its capital (Tallahassee) had 2494. Florida is sometimes called "The Peninsula State."



TEXAS.

(1692.)



ALTOGETHER the largest in superficial area of any of the States is Texas, a south-western Commonwealth which was annexed to the Union in 1845. It lies between latitude $25^{\circ} 15'$ and $36^{\circ} 30'$ north, and longitude $93^{\circ} 27'$ and $106^{\circ} 43'$ west. Its area is 265,780 square miles. On its northern border is the Indian Territory and New

Mexico; on the east is Arkansas and Louisiana; on the south-east is the Gulf of Mexico; and on the south-west the Republic of Mexico, from which it is separated by the Rio Grande. The population of Texas in 1880 was 1,591,749, of whom 394,512 were colored, including 992 Indians and 136 Chinese.

Texas displays every variety of surface and soil. Stretching back from forty to sixty miles from the Gulf coast, there is a belt of low land, much of it barren, or productive mainly of thickets of cactus and other prickly shrubs. Beyond this is a "prairie belt," of rich, gently rolling land, extending 150 or 200 miles further into the interior. In the west and north-west is a mountain region and a great table-land, the latter being in some places over 2000 feet above the sea. The mountain region in the west is composed of spurs of the Rocky Mountains. The great American Desert penetrates northern Texas fully sixty miles.

La Salle (see *Louisiana*), having inadvertently passed the mouths of the Mississippi, whither he was bound on his return from France, with a company of emigrants, in 1684, landed at the entrance to Matagorda Bay. The emigrants there debarked. The storeship containing most of the supplies was wrecked, and the unfaithful navigator in charge of the ships (four in number) deserted La Salle, leaving him only a small vessel.

The emigrants cast up a defense, which La Salle called Fort St. Louis. They attempted to till the soil. The barbarians there were hostile, and killed some of the settlers. Others perished from disease and hardship. They made

some explorations of the adjacent country. At the end of a year, of the colonists, who numbered 280 on their arrival, only forty were living.

Leaving one-half of these colonists, including women and children, La Salle, at the beginning of 1688, set out to return to Illinois, with fifteen companions. A revolt broke out among them, and they murdered La Salle and his nephew. Nearly all of those left at Fort St. Louis were massacred, and the survivors were made prisoners by Spaniards sent to drive out the French. So ended the first white settlement on the soil of Texas.

In 1690 a Spanish Jesuit mission was established on the site of Fort St.



J. PINKNEY HENDERSON, FIRST GOVERNOR OF TEXAS.

Louis, and another was soon established at Nacogdoches. In 1691 Spanish troops were sent to protect the mission at Fort St. John, but the persistent hostility of the Indians, and menaces of starvation, caused the post to be abandoned in 1693.

In 1714 the French again attempted to found settlements under the direction of Crozat (see *Louisiana*). He sent Captain de St. Denis to effect a settlement on the Rio Grande. St. Denis was taken prisoner by the Government of Coahuila, but, marrying a daughter of the commandant of a Spanish mission, he was instrumental in introducing three Spanish missions into Texas. Twenty years afterward St. Denis removed a French colony from the Red River into Texas. The Spaniards protested, but without effect.

The Spaniards were dominant in Texas. They gave it the name of "New Philippines," and appointed a Governor-General. The Indians persistently opposed the people of both nations who came among them, and slaughtered them, until, in 1765, there were not more than 700 white people in Texas.

After the cession of Louisiana to the United States in 1803, contentions arose concerning its western boundary. These were amicably adjusted in 1806 by General Wilkinson and the Spanish commander, who established the territory between the Sabine River and Arroya-Honda as neutral ground. In the same year revolutionary movements, incited by Aaron Burr, began in that region, and many skirmishes occurred, chiefly brought on by invasions of Americans. The Spanish lost in a conflict near San Antonio, in 1813, about 1000 men; in another conflict, the same year, a force of about 2500 Americans and revolted Mexicans perished. Only 100 of the whole party escaped. The Spaniards sought vengeance, and massacred about 700 peaceable citizens of San Antonio. So ended the first effort for Texan independence of Mexican rule.

The Sabine River was established as an eastern boundary of Texas by a commission in 1819. But dissatisfaction caused incessant disputes, and the territory was almost deserted. In 1820 Moses Austin, a New Englander, living in Missouri, received from the Spanish authorities of Mexico a grant of land in Texas. On his death his son, Stephen, received a confirmation of the grant in 1823, when emigrants from the United States flocked into Texas in great numbers. These were chiefly from the slave-labor States. A thousand families were soon there. The Spanish rule soon became so oppressive to the American colonists that, in 1827, some of them engaged in a revolution, and were compelled to flee to the United States.

In 1830 Bustamente, who had made himself Dictator of Mexico, issued a decree forbidding the people of the United States to enter Texas as colonists. The American settlers in Texas then numbered about 20,000. Coahuila had been annexed to Texas. The Rio Grande separated them. A convention of the Americans, held in 1833, determined to separate from Coahuila. They prepared a State Constitution, and requested Santa Aña, then at the head of the Mexican Government, to admit them as a separate State of the Mexican Republic. Colonel Stephen F. Austin, representing the American colonists, went to the city of Mexico, where Santa Aña detained him until 1835, during which time, keeping the Texans quiet by promises of compliance with their

desires, he prepared to occupy the country with his own troops. Perceiving this, the Texans created a Committee of Safety, which assumed governmental powers.

The Texans now armed themselves and prepared for revolution. On October 2, 1835, the first skirmish between Texans and Mexicans occurred. Others followed. On November 9, a provisional Government was established by a delegate Convention called the "Consultation." A Governor and Lieutenant-Governor were appointed. At the same time Samuel Houston, of Tennessee, who had settled in Texas, was chosen Commander-in-chief of the Texan forces, and Austin was sent a commissioner to the United States. On December 10, San Antonio de Bexar was captured, and the entire Mexican force was driven out of Texas. On the 20th a Declaration of Independence was adopted and issued at Goliad by Captain Philip and others.

Santa Aña, astonished by these rapid revolutionary movements, set out from Mexico with an army of 7500 men for the recovery of Texas. In February, 1834, he invested the Alamo, a strong fort near San Antonio, then garrisoned by about 170 men, under Captain M. B. Travis. Four thousand Mexicans beleaguered it for eleven days, when they carried it by storm, and on March 6 the whole garrison was murdered by order of Santa Aña, only one woman, a child, and a servant were saved. "Remember the Alamo!" was the Texan war-cry after that. The Mexicans had lost in the attack 1600 men.

On March 1, a Convention issued a Declaration of Independence, and chose David G. Burnet provisional President. The garrison at Goliad were massacred in cold blood on the 27th, and successive defeats created a panic among the Texans. Houston, meanwhile, had fallen back to San Jacinto, where, with about 800 troops, he gave battle to about twice that number, led by Santa Aña in person, on April 21, 1836. Houston was successful. The defeated Mexicans fled in dismay. In the pursuit of them 630 were killed, 208 were wounded, and 739 made prisoners. Among the latter was President Santa Aña, who had lost a leg. His force was annihilated. Texas had achieved its independence.

In September, 1836, Samuel Houston was elected President of the new Republic, which adopted as its ensign a single star. In March, 1837, the United States acknowledged the independence of Texas, and it took its place among sovereign nations. Other governments soon afterwards acknowledged its independence.

The people of the slave-holding States of the Union were anxious to have Texas annexed to the United States; and such, also, was a prevailing desire among the people of that little Republic. The proposition when formally made, seven or eight years after the birth of the Texan Republic, was generally opposed by the free-labor States, as it would increase the area and political strength of the slave power, and, probably, lead to war with Mexico. The matter was persisted in by the South, and, with the sanction of President Tyler, a treaty to that effect was signed at Washington on April 12, 1844. It was rejected by the Senate in June following.

The project of annexation was presented at the next session of Congress, in the form of a joint resolution. It had been made a leading political question at the presidential election in the fall of 1844, when James K. Polk, known to be in favor of annexation, was elected President. The resolution was adopted on March 1, 1845, and received the assent of President Tyler the next day. On the last day of his term of office he sent a message to the Texan Government, with a copy of the joint resolution of Congress in favor of annexation. This resolution was considered by a Convention in Texas, called for the purpose of framing a new State Constitution. That body approved the measure, and on July 4, 1845, Texas was admitted into the Union as an independent State.

Texas, the only real "sovereign State" which had entered the Union, became involved in the Secession movements at an early day. The venerable Governor Houston opposed these movements with all his might, but in vain, for an organization known as "Knights of the Golden Circle," pledged to effect disunion, wielded a powerful influence in that State. Among those knights were many members of the Texan Legislature, and active politicians all over the State. Sixty of these irresponsible persons, in January, 1861, called a State Convention to meet at Austin on the 28th of that month; and a single member of the Legislature actually issued a call for the assembling of that body at the same time and place. The Legislature, by a joint resolution, declared the Convention a legally constituted body. Governor Houston protested against the assumption of any power by the Convention, except to refer the matter of Secession to the people.

On the appointed day the Convention assembled in the hall of the House of Representatives, under the chief management of John H. Reagan, who became Postmaster-general of the Southern Confederacy. A commissioner from South Carolina was there to assist in the management. Not one half

of the 122 counties in the State were represented. On the first of February, 1861, an Ordinance of Secession was adopted by a vote of 166 against seven. Its tenor was similar to those adopted by other conventions. The Convention abrogated, in the name of the people of Texas, the Ordinance of Annexation, and decreed that the Ordinance of Secession should be submitted to the people, but at a day so early that the people had no opportunity to discuss it. They appointed a Committee of Safety, and delegates to the General Convention at Montgomery, Alabama.

The Committee of Safety was immediately organized, when it appointed two of its members commissioners to treat with General Twiggs, then in command of National troops in Texas, for the surrender of his army, and the public property under his control to the authorities of Texas. This service Twiggs gladly performed. The Committee so managed the votes cast by the people on the Secession Ordinance, that there seemed to be fully 23,000 majority in favor of it, when it is asserted, on competent authority, that a very large proportion of the people were opposed to it. Governor Houston, in an address to the people of his State, severely denounced what he called the "usurpation" of that Convention.

The annexation of Texas led to a war with Mexico, begun in 1846, and ended by treaty in February, 1848, when Texas embraced an area of 376,163 square miles. In 1850 that State ceded to the United States all territory beyond its present limits, on consideration of receiving \$10,000,000 in bonds, with the proceeds of which the State debt was paid.

In 1867 Texas and Louisiana were constituted a military district, and placed under military rule, under General Sheridan. On December 7, 1868, a State Convention adopted a Constitution, which was ratified by the people in 1869, and at the same time a Governor and Legislature were chosen. In February, 1870, the Fourteenth and Fifteenth amendments to the National Constitution were ratified by the Legislature, and on March 30 Congress decided that Texas was entitled to representation in that body. In April the military government was transferred to the civil authorities.

The leading staple agricultural productions of Texas are cotton, corn and grass. It is also the most extensive cattle-raising State in the Union. In 1850 it had 805,606 horses; 132,447 mules and asses; 4,084,605 cattle; 2,411,633 sheep; and 1,950,371 swine. Its cereal crops were Indian corn, 29,065,172 bushels; wheat, 2,567,737 bushels; oats, 4,893,359 bushels; and much rye and barley. The cotton crop yielded 805,284 bales.

Texas is becoming an extensive manufacturing State, especially of cotton-textile fabrics. There were 5344 miles of railways in operation in the State in 1880, which cost \$142,654,627. The assessed value of taxable property, real and personal, was in 1880, \$303,202,424.

The number of children of school age, from eight to fourteen years, in Texas in 1880, was 230,577, of whom 186,786 were enrolled in the public schools. Total expenditure for public instruction that year was \$782,785.

Texas, it is supposed, derives its name from an ancient tribe of Texas Indians, who inhabited the Valley of the Rio Grande. The name is said to be the root of that of Tol-Tezas, Toltecs, Az-Tezas, Aztecs, etc. The commonwealth is called "The Lone Star State."



IOWA.

(1833.)



ONE of the most fertile States of the Union is Iowa, which lies between the Mississippi and Missouri rivers, and latitude $40^{\circ} 36'$ and $43^{\circ} 30'$ north, and longitude $89^{\circ} 5'$ and $96^{\circ} 31'$ west. It is a central State of the Upper Mississippi Valley. Its northern boundary is the State of Minnesota; its eastern the States of Missouri and Illinois, from which it is separated by the Mississippi River; on the south by Missouri, and on the west by Nebraska and Dakota, from which it is separated by the Missouri River. The area of Iowa is 56,025 square miles. By the census of 1880 it ranked ten among the States in population, the number of inhabitants then being 1,624,615, of whom 1005 were colored, including 466 Indians. The State census, taken in 1885, gave Iowa 1,754,000 inhabitants. In the value of its agricultural products it ranks fourth among the States.

The face of Iowa may be designated as a fine, rolling country. Notwithstanding within the State is the great water-shed between the Mississippi and Missouri rivers, the highest land in the Commonwealth—Table Mound—does not rise more than 500 feet above the Gulf of Mexico. In the north-western part of the State is a rugged region called by the French "Coteau des Prairies." Its entire eastern border is washed by the Mississippi, and its entire western border is washed by the Missouri. The great water-shed is near the centre of the State.

Iowa was originally a part of the vast region of Louisiana ceded to the United States in 1803 (see *Louisiana*). The first settlement there was made by a Frenchman named Julian Dubuque, who, in 1788, obtained a grant of a large tract of land, including the site of the present city of Dubuque, and the rural lands around it—one of the richest lead regions known. There Dubuque built a fort, worked the lead mines, and traded with Indians until his death, in 1810, when his colony was driven away by the barbarians. Dubuque had

married an Indian woman, had taught the natives how to work the lead mines, and had become a famous chief among them so early as the year 1800.

After Dubuque's death the Indians abandoned the mines, and the region was not again occupied by white people until 1833, when the first permanent settlement on the present domain of Iowa was made. In 1830 some unauthorized miners came to the Dubuque mineral lands to work them, but were restrained by a few United States troops, placed there by Captain Zachary Taylor, who was in command of a post at Prairie du Chien. The troops remained there until 1832, when the Black Hawk War broke out. That was originated in this wise:

Hostilities between the Indian tribes in the North-west continually pre-



ANSELL BRIGGS, FIRST GOVERNOR OF IOWA.

vailed. The warlike Sioux or Dakotas occupied the country west of the Mississippi, in the region of Iowa. A party of Chippewas from the east side, visiting Fort Snelling, on the west side, were killed or wounded by Sioux. The commander of the garrison captured four of the murderers and delivered them to the Chippewas, who instantly shot them. The exasperated Sioux thirsted for vengeance. The Sioux chief, Red Bird, and his companions, slew several white people. General Atkinson, in command in the Northwest, captured the chief, who soon afterwards died in prison, when Black Hawk, a fiery chief of the Sacs and Foxes, in present Wisconsin, and an ally of the Sioux, at once began hostilities against the white people.

Black Hawk crossed the Mississippi, when General Atkinson took the

field against him. In July cholera seized the troops, and slew all but nine of the 208 of the United States force. After two severe battles the Indians were subdued, and Black Hawk was made a prisoner. (See *Wisconsin*.)

Treaties were then made, by which the United States obtained large tracts of valuable lands from the Sacs and Foxes, as indemnity for the expense of the war. The tract included a large part of (present) Iowa, extending nearly 300 miles north of the Missouri River. It is known as the "Black Hawk Purchase." Very soon other lands were purchased, and the present limits of Iowa were cleared of Indian titles.

In 1833 Burlington was founded, and Dubuque was re-inhabited by white people. In 1835, many members of the Society of Friends, or Quakers, emigrated to Iowa, and settled the town of Salem. In 1834, all that part of the Missouri Territory north of the State of Missouri, and west of the Mississippi, was placed under the jurisdiction of Michigan. Wisconsin Territory was organized in 1836, and Iowa was made a district of it, with the seat of Government for the whole Territory fixed at Burlington. The district at that time contained a population of over 10,000.

The Territory of Iowa was organized in 1838, and given a separate Government. A flood of emigration had been flowing in, and at that time the Territory had a population of 23,000. Two years later there were 43,000 inhabitants there. This flood of emigration was chiefly from New England and New York. Now the Territorial Legislature made formal application to Congress for the admission of Iowa into the Union as a State. An enabling act was passed, and in October, 1844, a Convention framed a Constitution for the proposed State.

On March 3, 1845, an act was passed by Congress for the admission of Iowa as a State, simultaneously with the State of Florida, but upon the condition that the people of the Commonwealth, at a subsequent election, should assent to a restriction of its limits, in conformity with the general area of other Western States. The people, by a majority of nearly 2000 votes, refused to agree to these restrictions, and Iowa remained a Territory until the following year.

The people of Iowa, after mature deliberation and discussion, assented to the proposed restriction, and in January, 1846, the Legislature formally expressed the acquiescence of the inhabitants. Congress then authorized them to assemble another Convention to frame a new Constitution. It was held in May. A Constitution then adopted was submitted to Congress, and ap-

proved in June following, and on December 28th, 1846, Iowa became a State of the Great Republic with Ansell Briggs as its first Governor.

Burlington had remained the capital of the Territory of Iowa until 1839, when it was removed to Iowa City, at the head of the navigable waters of the Iowa River. On the admission of the Territory as a State, the seat of Government was removed (1857) to Fort Des Moines, on the Des Moines River, in Polk County, in the central southern part of the State, where it still remains.

The Territory taken from Iowa by the restriction imposed by Congress was named Dakota. The first election was held in October, 1846, and the first meeting of the State Legislature took place in December, the same year.

Iowa, lying west of the Mississippi River, with a population of almost 700,000, and with a loyal administration, was quick to perceive the needs of the National Government in 1861, in its struggle then begun with its enemies, and was lavish in its aid. Its loyal Governor, Kirkwood, after the call of President Lincoln at the middle of April, for 75,000 men to suppress the rising rebellion, summoned the Legislature to meet in extraordinary session on May 15. In his message to that body the next day the Governor said:

"In this emergency Iowa must not and does not occupy a doubtful position; for the Union as our fathers formed it, and for the Government they formed so wisely and so well, the people of Iowa are ready to pledge every fighting man in the State, and every dollar of her money and credit; and I have called you together in extraordinary session for the purpose of making that pledge formal and effective.

* * * * *

"I feel^a assured the State can readily raise the means necessary to place her in a position consistent alike with her honor and her safety. Her territory, of great extent and of unsurpassed fertility, inviting and constantly receiving a desirable emigration; her population of nearly three-quarters of a million of intelligent, industrious, energetic and liberty-loving people; her very rapid past and prospective growth; her present financial standing, having a debt of about one-quarter of a million dollars, unite to make her bonds among the most desirable investments which our country affords."

These were brave words for the Governor of a State lying side by side with Missouri, a slave-labor State, whose Chief Magistrate and Legislature were then taking desperate measures to array that Commonwealth against the life of the Republic (see *Missouri*); while Nebraska, as yet a thinly popu-

lated territory, was its western neighbor, and little able to defend it from invasion.

The Legislature of Iowa was as loyal and patriotic as its Governor, and earnestly co-operated with him. It voted a war loan of \$600,000, and contracted a debt of \$800,000. Secession movements were watched with much solicitude by its rulers and people. When the President called for troops, Iowa was one of the earliest to respond. Her troops were among the earliest in the field, and during the Civil War she furnished to the National army over 75,000 soldiers. More than 20,000 were furnished during the first year of the war.

Iowa is a great grain-growing State, ranking second in the production of Indian corn. The census of 1880 showed the yield of corn that year to have been 275,014,247 bushels. There were 31,154,205 bushels of wheat, 50,610,591 bushels of oats, 4,022,588 bushels of barley, and 1,518,605 bushels of rye, harvested that year. Iowa has also an immense number of farm animals. In 1880 it had 792,322 horses, 2,612,034 cattle, 455,359 sheep, and 6,034,316 swine. The latter were about 1,000,000 in excess of any other State in the Union. It had attained a high rank for the production of butter and cheese.

The assessed valuation of the taxable property in Iowa, in 1880, real and personal, was \$398,671,251. Its debts, local and State, amounted to \$7,962,767.

There were in Iowa in 1880 railroads in operation to the extent of 5235 miles, costing \$89,236,500. Its expenditures and general provision for public instruction were liberal. In 1880 there were in the State 586,556 children of school age (from five to twenty-one years), of whom 426,000 were enrolled in the public schools. The State expended that year for its public schools \$4,347,119. There is a State university at Iowa City, and a State Agricultural College, and there were, in 1880, seventeen other colleges.

Iowa is an Indian word, signifying "The Beautiful Land." Its fictitious name is "Hawkeye State," said to have been that of an Indian chief, who was a terror to *voyageurs* to its borders.



WISCONSIN.

(1669.)



WISCONSIN, as the French spelled the name as pronounced by the Indians—Wees-kon-san—is one of the north-western States of the Mississippi Valley, lying between latitude $42^{\circ} 27'$ and 47° north, and longitude $86^{\circ} 53'$ and $92^{\circ} 53'$ west. It embraces an area of 56,040 square miles, and had a population in 1880 of 1,315,497, of whom 5870 were colored, including 3161 Indians. It is bounded on the north by Lake Superior, and north-east by the Upper Peninsula of Michigan; on the east by Lake Michigan, south by Illinois, and west by Iowa and Minnesota, from which it is separated by the Mississippi River.

The surface of Wisconsin is an elevated rolling prairie. It has two watersheds—one in the north-west, where a ridge known as the Iron Hills, the highest in the State, divides the waters flowing into Lake Superior from those flowing into the Mississippi River. Another ridge crosses the south central part of the State; and a third ridge traverses the south-eastern portion, and separates the waters flowing into Lake Michigan and Green Bay. The affluents of the Mississippi drain four-fifths of the State. The greater part of the soil of the Commonwealth is arable land, and much of it is very fertile and easily cultivated.

Wisconsin was the theatre of the early operations of French missionaries and traders in the region of the Great Lakes in the seventeenth century. So early as 1639 a small French settlement was begun on the site of the present town of Green Bay, at the southern extremity of Green Bay, an arm of Lake Michigan. It was soon afterwards broken up, but on the same spot Claude Jean Allouez, an ardent Jesuit missionary, after laboring several years among the natives on the borders of the St. Lawrence River, planted a missionary station. He was one of the earliest explorers of the Lake region. His mission at Green Bay became a flourishing trading station also. The mission was for the conversion of the Fox, Miami, and other Indian tribes in (present)

Wisconsin. Allonez sought to make the mission established by Marquette at Kaskaskia another permanent field of labor, but when the energetic La Salle, the bitter enemy of the Jesuits, appeared at Green Bay, in 1679, Allonez retired. (See *Illinois*.)

La Salle arrived at Green Bay in the summer of 1679, where he tarried some time getting furs, with which to freight his vessel, the *Griffon*, on her return voyage, expecting to apply the proceeds to the payment of his creditors, who were seriously pressing him. The loss of the vessel and its valuable cargo embarrassed him, but his indomitable will and energy conquered all difficulties, and he afterwards discovered the mouth of the Mississippi and planted the first white colony in Texas. (See *Texas*.)



NELSON DEWEY, FIRST GOVERNOR OF WISCONSIN.

Wisconsin continued to be occupied by French missionaries and traders until 1763, when the whole domain claimed by the French passed into the possession of the English, and the territory continued to be governed by the laws of Canada until after the Revolution, when, by the treaty of 1783, the region north-west of the Ohio was ceded to the new Republic of the United States. Soon afterwards Wisconsin became a part of the North-west Territory, organized in 1787.

The British Government gave up that region with great reluctance, and retained possession of military posts there until several years after it had made the treaty with the United States, which called for their surrender. There were other provisions of the treaty not complied with by the British,

which caused great irritation in the public mind in America. Finally, in April, 1794, a motion was made in the lower House of Congress to suspend all commercial intercourse with Great Britain until the treaty should be fully executed on her part, especially in the surrender of the Western posts.

This motion, if adopted, would inevitably lead to war. To avert such a calamity, President Washington sent John Jay to England as envoy extraordinary to arrange the matter amicably. It was done, and in 1796, or thirteen years after the signing of the treaty of peace, the western posts were given up to the United States.

In 1809 Wisconsin was included in the Territory of Illinois, as it was then defined. It continued to form a part of that Territory until 1818, when Illinois entered the Union as an independent State. Then Wisconsin was placed under the jurisdiction of the Government of Michigan.

In 1821, Rev. Eleazar Williams, the reputed Dauphin or crown-prince of France, arrived at Green Bay with a delegation of Oneida Indians, to treat with the barbarian chiefs of that region—the Winnebagoes and Menomonees—for a cession of lands whereon to make a home for themselves and others of their tribe who might join them. There Williams afterwards married a half-breed, and there he held his memorable interview with the Prince de Joinville, son of King Louis Philippe of France. At that interview the young Prince acknowledged Williams to be the Dauphin, and presented a document which he urged the missionary to sign. It was a formal abdication of the throne of France in favor of Louis Philippe, whose throne rested on an unstable foundation. In 1822 a rude place called “Shanty Town,” (in Brown County), not far from Green Bay, was made a seat of justice. A court-house and jail were erected, the first built between Lake Michigan and the Pacific Ocean.

The settlers at Green Bay were chiefly French Canadians and half-breeds, who were simple in their habits, kind and polite in deportment, many of them cultivated in a remarkable degree, and presenting a society attractive to settlers. Wisconsin soon possessed many thriving settlements, planted by bold pioneers who bravely faced the dangers from Indian hostilities and the privations of a home in the wilderness.

The principal events in the history of the “Black Hawk War” occurred within the western limits of the present State of Wisconsin. This war has been alluded to in our sketch of the State of Iowa, in which some of its scenes were enacted.

On the 1st of August, 1832, a severe battle was fought at the Bad Axe River, between Black Hawk, the famous Sac chief, and 400 followers on the land, and United States troops who were on the steamer *Warrior*, which had been sent into the river. Twenty-three of the Indians were killed, but not one of the troops. After the fight the *Warrior* returned to Prairie du Chien.

The contest was renewed the next morning by Black Hawk, who attacked troops under General Atkinson. The Indians were defeated and dispersed, with a considerable loss of killed and wounded. Thirty-six of their women and children were made prisoners. Eight of the troops were killed, and seventy-seven were wounded. Black Hawk was pursued over the Wisconsin River, and at a strong position the fugitive chief made a stand with about 300 men. After a sharp battle for three hours, Black Hawk, having lost one-half of his warriors and his second in command, fled. He was finally captured by a party of friendly Winnebagoes, and delivered to General Steele at Prairie du Chien.

Treaties were now made, and a large tract of land was ceded to the United States as indemnity. (See *Iowa*.) Black Hawk, his two sons, and six principal chiefs, were held as hostages. The chief and his sons were taken to Washington to visit the President of the United States, and then they were shown some of the principal cities at the North and East, to impress them with the greatness and power of the American people.

In 1836 Michigan was erected into a State, and Wisconsin was organized as a separate Territory. From that period may be reckoned the beginning of the rapid increase in population and wealth in Wisconsin. The first frame house had been built in the Territory in 1825. In 1827 the first printing was done there and the first steamboat appeared on Lake Michigan. In 1831 the first cession of lands to the United States was made by the Indians. The first newspaper appeared in 1833. In 1884 the first mail was carried from Green Bay to Chicago, then a little village, and the first survey of public lands took place near Green Bay. The remaining lands of the Indians in Wisconsin were ceded to the United States, when it became a Territory, in 1836. There were then fully 5000 white people in the Territory. A flood tide of emigration set in in 1838 and 1839, and in 1842 it was estimated that 60,000 persons had settled in the Territory, which at first included a part of the Upper Peninsula of Michigan, the whole of Minnesota and Iowa, and that part of Dakota lying east of the Missouri and White Earth rivers.

The first Territorial Legislature assembled at Belmont, in Iowa County..

In 1838 Madison, situated on an undulating isthmus between Lake Mendota and Lake Monona, 210 feet above Lake Michigan, was made the permanent seat of Government. At that time there was only one log-house at the future capital, where, in 1885, there was a population of over 12,000.

A Convention held at Madison late in 1846 framed a State Constitution, which was approved by Congress, but rejected by the people. It was ratified by the people the next year; and on May 29, 1848, Wisconsin entered the Union as an independent State of the Republic. Nelson Dewey was chosen its first Governor. Its population then was about 300,000. In 1849 a portion of the State was taken to form a part of the Minnesota Territory.

When the Civil War broke out in 1861, Wisconsin contained about 800,000 inhabitants, and in politics it was Republican by fully 20,000 majority. Its Governor, Alexander W. Randall, was thoroughly loyal; and that State was among the first, in the North-west, to declare itself unalterably for the Union. The Legislature, with a large Republican majority in both branches, convened at Madison on the 10th of January, 1861, when the Governor, in his message, said:

"The signs of the times indicate, in my opinion, that there may arrive a contingency in the condition of the Government under which it may become necessary to respond to the call of the National Government for men and means to sustain the integrity of the Union, and thwart the designs of men engaged in an organized treason."

That call came on April 15, when the Governor's Guard immediately volunteered, and volunteer companies formed in all parts of the State. An extraordinary session of the Legislature was called. It met in May. The Governor urged the immediate equipment of six regiments of volunteers, the purchase of cannons, and the appropriation of \$1,000,000 for the purposes of the war. The Legislature responded heartily and fully, by authorizing the execution of the measures recommended by the Governor, and more. By the close of the year, Wisconsin had sent into the field 24,000 soldiers. The whole number of soldiers contributed to the National army by the State during the war was 96,118.

Indian corn, oats and wheat are the three principal agricultural products of Wisconsin. The State census in 1885 showed that the produce of corn that year was 37,718,304 bushels; of oats, 43,047,416 bushels; and of wheat, 21,033,000 bushels. It also produced 11,505,290 bushels of barley, 2,075,537 bushels of rye, 465,443 bushels of buckwheat, 590,000 gallons of sorghum

molasses, and 20,594,625 pounds of tobacco. Of farm animals it had 398,132 horses and mules, 1,543,899 cattle, 1,429,137 sheep, and 1,196,200 swine. The wool clip that year was 6,174,527 pounds.

In 1880 Wisconsin had 7674 manufacturing establishments, employing a capital of \$73,821,802, and yielding products to the value of \$128,255,480. There were in operation in the State, in 1884, 6310 miles of railroads, which cost \$478,000,000. Several of these are trunk lines. The assessed valuation of taxable property in Wisconsin in 1885 was \$488,139,614. The lake and river commerce of the State is quite extensive.

There were 483,227 children of school age (four to twenty years) in Wisconsin in 1880, of whom 299,514 were enrolled in the public schools. The total expenditure for public schools that year was \$2,163,345. There were eight universities and colleges in the State.

Milwaukee is the commercial metropolis and the largest city in the State, its population in 1885 being 158,509. The name of Wisconsin is of Indian derivation, and signifies "Wild, rushing Water." Such was the aboriginal name of the Wisconsin River, and was appropriate to that stream. It is sometimes called "The Badger State," from the great number of badgers formerly found there.



CALIFORNIA.

(1769.)



THE largest of the Pacific States is California, lying between latitude $32^{\circ} 28'$ and 42° north, and longitude $114^{\circ} 30'$ and $124^{\circ} 45'$ west. On its northern border is the State of Oregon; on its eastern Nevada, and the Territory of Arizona; on the south is Southern California; and on the west it is washed by the waters of the Pacific Ocean—a coast line 700 miles in extent. The average width of California is about 200 miles. It contains an area of 158,360 square miles, and in 1880 contained a population of 864,694, exclusive of tribal Indians, of whom 97,513 were colored, including 75,132 Chinese, 86 Japanese, and 16,277 Indians. There are about 7300 tribal Indians in the State.

The State of California embraces a most remarkable region of country, its topography largely consisting of two mountain ranges, more than 100 miles apart, running through the whole length of the State from north-west to south-east, with a broad and mostly fertile valley lying between. The face of the country is generally very rugged, being largely covered with mountains.

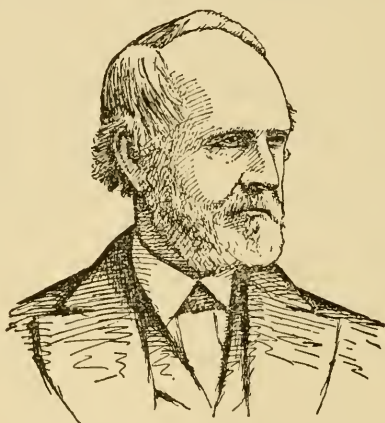
The Sierra Nevada, or Snowy Mountains, which bound the Great Valley of California on the east, is composed of a series of ranges, aggregating in width seventy miles. The high peaks are almost entirely covered with snow. One of them, Mount Whitney, rises to the height of 15,000 feet. The coast range, which bounds the valley on the west, also consists of a series of chains, collectively about forty miles in width, lying in confusion, and extending in Southern California across the State. One of the peaks, Mount Shasta, attains an altitude of 14,440 feet.

Besides the Great Valley there are many smaller ones, some of them very fertile, others barren and made deadly by mephitic vapors. The most picturesque and famous of these valleys is the Yosemite.

East of the Sierra Nevada is a series of lakes, which extend nearly the whole length of the State—some of them alkaline, others salt, and others

pure and sweet water. One of the latter is Tahoe Lake, the deepest and most elevated sheet of water on the continent. In the south-eastern portion of the State are deep depressions, evidently the beds of lakes and estuaries of the ancient world, from 400 to 600 feet below the level of the sea. There are two important navigable rivers in the State, the Sacramento and San Joaquin, and numerous smaller ones.

In the year 1542 Mendoza, Viceroy of Mexico, sent Rodriguez de Cabrillo, a Portuguese navigator, in search of the "Strait of America," supposed to lead from the Pacific Ocean to the Atlantic. He sailed up the Pacific coast to latitude 44°, discovering the coast of California and a part of the Oregon coast. The Peninsula of Lower California was probably discovered



PETER G. BURNETT, FIRST GOVERNOR OF CALIFORNIA.

eight years earlier by Hernando de Grijalva, whom Cortez sent to the Pacific coast on an errand of discovery in 1534. There the earliest settlements in California—old California—were made in 1683.

In 1578 Sir Francis Drake, while on a plundering expedition against the Spanish settlements on the west coast of South America, pushed northward to latitude 44°, and discovered the coasts of Upper California and Oregon. He entered the Bay of San Francisco, where he landed, and gave the name of New Albion, or New England, to the country. But he did not plant a settlement. That act was left for monks of the order of St. Francis to perform nearly 200 years later, who founded a mission at San Diego, on the south-west corner of New or Upper California in 1768. These monks founded another mission on the site of San Francisco in 1776, and gave it that name.

These Franciscans made their mission stations very comfortable. The

buildings were made of adobe, or sun-dried blocks of clay. The habitations for the priests, the store-houses, mechanic-shops, offices, granaries, and places for the instruction of Indian youths, were all made commodious and comfortable. Around these missions were soon clustered, in their conical-shaped huts, numerous Indians, sometimes numbering a few hundred, and at other times several thousands. At each mission were a few soldiers, furnished by the Spanish Government, as a protection against hostile Indians.

These missions finally extended nearly all over the territory, and for many years the government of California, temporal and spiritual, was under the control of the monks of the Order of St. Francis. One mission was bounded by another. They did not require so much land for agriculture or pasturage, but they appropriated the whole, and persistently opposed the settlement of lands between the mission stations, by individuals.

The general products of these missions were cattle, horses, sheep, Indian corn, beans, and peas. In the southern portion of the Territory they raised grapes and olives in abundance, made wine, and carried on a profitable trade with foreign vessels that came to their ports for hides and tallow.

From the year 1800 to 1830, these missions were at the height of their prosperity. Each one was a mission principality, with its hundred thousand acres of land, and an average of 20,000 cattle. All the Indian population were subjects of the priests, tilling their lands for them, and reverencing them as almost demi-gods. The Mexican Government finally became jealous of them, as they rapidly increased in wealth and power, and in 1833 the authorities began a series of restrictive measures, which, in little over ten years, ruined the missions—the initial civilization of California. In 1845 they were obliterated. Their property was sacrificed at auction sales.

The policy of the priests, who held absolute sway, was to discourage immigration. The Bishop was the supreme civil, military, and religious ruler of the province. The inhabitants were gathered around forts, or *presidios*, or in villages (*pueblos*), which grew up amid the missions. There were four *presidios* in California, namely, at San Diego, Santa Barbara, Monterey, and San Francisco; and the chief villages were Los Angeles, San José, and Branciforte. Later emigrants from the United States established one on the Bay of San Francisco, which has since grown into a magnificent city, containing fully 230,000 inhabitants.

The revolution in Mexico in 1822 began working the decay of Spanish ecclesiastical power in California. When it was utterly exterminated, twenty

years later, the Californians, restive under the Mexican yoke, made efforts to achieve their independence. Emigrants from the United States flocked into the territory. They were generally a hardy, enterprising and liberty-loving people. A quarrel broke out between them and the Mexican authorities in 1846, and the Mexican commander attempted to expel the Americans from the province.

Lieutenant-Colonel John C. Frémont, who had just explored the Sierra Nevadas, with about sixty men, was then at Monterey. He had been opposed by a Mexican force under General Castro. He now armed all of the American settlers in the vicinity of San Francisco Bay. At Sonoma Pass they captured a Mexican post and garrison (June 15), with nine cannons and 250 muskets, and then advanced upon Sonoma. There they defeated Castro and his troops. The Mexican authorities were driven out of that region of the country; and on July 5, 1846, the American-Californians proclaimed themselves independent of Mexico, and placed Frémont at the head of public affairs.

At this juncture Commodore Sloat, in command of the Pacific squadron, bombarded and captured Monterey, and on the 9th Commodore Montgomery took possession of San Francisco. Commodore Stockton arrived on the 15th with news of the declaration of war against Mexico by the United States. In that war the command of the "Army of the West" was given to General Stephen W. Kearney, of New Jersey, with instructions to conquer New Mexico and California.

After a march of 900 miles over the Great Plains and among the mountain ranges, Kearney arrived at Santa Fé, the capital of New Mexico, without opposition. Having taken possession of the country, he pushed on toward California. He soon met an express from Stockton and Frémont, informing him that the conquest of California was already achieved. Kearney then sent the main body of his troops back to Santa Fé, and with one hundred men pushed on to Los Angeles, near the Pacific coast, where he met Stockton and Frémont. With these gentlemen he shared in the honors of the important events which finally completed the conquest and pacification of California.

Frémont, the real conqueror and liberator of California, claimed the right to be Governor. He was supported by Stockton and the people. Kearney, his superior officer, denied his right, and at Monterey he assumed the office of Governor himself, and proclaimed (February 8, 1847) the annexation of

California to the United States. Frémont, who refused to obey General Kearney, was ordered to Washington to answer for his disobedience. He was deprived of his commission. President Polk, who regarded him as one of the best officers in the army, offered to restore it, but Frémont refused to accept it ever afterwards, and went to the wilderness again and engaged in explorations.

By the terms of the treaty of peace, signed at Guadalupe Hidalgo, on February 2, 1848, Mexico ceded the territory of California to the United States for the sum of \$15,000,000. The white population was then about 15,000. In the same year and month, gold was found on the property of Captain John A. Sutter, who had emigrated to California in 1838. A man named Marshall, employed by Captain Sutter, while digging a mill-race five miles up the American fork of the Sacramento River, discovered the precious metal. It was soon afterwards found in other places, and during the summer of 1848 rumors of the discovery reached the United States. The President alluded to it in his annual message to Congress in December, and early in 1849 thousands of gold-seekers were on their way to California. Around Cape Horn, across the Isthmus of Panama, and over the central plains and vast mountain ranges of the Continent, men went by hundreds, and gold was found in every direction in California. Gold-seekers from Europe and Asia flocked to the Pacific shores, and the dreams of the early Spanish adventurers of El Dorado seemed to be realized.

The emigration to California in 1849 was marvellous. At the end of that year nearly a quarter of a million of people had been added to the population. It is said that "a more reckless, daring, and dangerous body of men never collected in any part of the world." An organized government became an absolute necessity. The military Governor, General Riley, called a Convention to meet at Monterey on September 1, 1849, to consider the subject of a State Constitution. The Convention, after a session of six weeks, framed and adopted a Constitution. Before the meeting of the Convention, the people of California, in a delegate Convention at San Francisco, had voted against the admission of the slave-labor system into that country. The Constitution now adopted excluded that system from that inchoate State. When it was presented to Congress, and permission was asked for California to enter the Union as an independent State, a bitter discussion of the slavery question was aroused.

Under this Constitution representatives in both Houses of Congress were

elected. The people, gratefully remembering their liberator, John Charles Frémont, chose him and William M. Gwynn, their first representatives in the United States Senate, and Edward Gilbert and J. H. Wright, members of the House of Representatives. The Senators carried the Constitution with them to Washington, and in February, 1850, presented a petition for the admission of their State.

The article forbidding slavery in the new State immediately elicited virulent debate, and a bitter feeling in the slave-labor States against the people of the free-labor States. The Union, so strong in the hearts of the whole people, was shaken to its centre. It was evident that some compromise should be effected for the sake of peace and harmony. Henry Clay, who was a peace-maker at the time of the Nullification movement, (see *South Carolina*), now offered (April, 1850) a joint resolution to appoint a committee of thirteen, composed of six Northern members and six Southern members, who should choose the thirteenth, to consider the subject of a Territorial Government for California, New Mexico and Utah, with instructions to report a plan of compromise embracing all the questions then arising out of the subject of slavery. Mr. Clay was made Chairman of the Committee.

On the 8th of May, 1853, Mr. Clay presented a plan of compromise, consisting of a series of resolutions intended to be a pacification. The act proposed was called the "Omnibus Bill." It provided for the admission of California as a State; for fixing the boundary of Texas; declared the inexpediency of abolishing slavery in the District of Columbia, so long as it existed in Maryland; proposed a fugitive slave law, and declared that Congress had no power to interfere with the inter-State slave trade.

In July the Bill as a whole was rejected, excepting the proposition to establish the Mormon Territory of Utah. Then the provisions of the Omnibus Bill were taken up separately. In August the Senate passed a bill for the admission of California as a free-labor State, and another for a Territorial Government for New Mexico. In September the famous Fugitive Slave law was adopted, and another for suppressing the slave-trade in the District of Columbia. All of these bills were adopted by the House of Representatives in September, and became laws by receiving the signature of President Fillmore. California was admitted as a State on September 9, 1850. Peter G. Burnett was chosen its first Governor.

So lawless was a large class of the population of the State at this time, that nothing but the swift operations of "Vigilance Committees" could en-

sure order and safety. The first "Vigilance Committee" at San Francisco was organized in 1851. These Committees finally assumed the powers and functions of judges and executioners, but under proper regulations. This tribunal became "a terror to evil-doers." Dangerous men of every kind were arrested, tried, hanged, transported or acquitted. In 1856 the Vigilance Committee of San Francisco surrendered its powers to the regularly constituted civil authority. Then California pressed on in its bounding career of prosperity, until now it rivals some of the Atlantic States. Owing to its isolated position it did not furnish any troops to the National army during the Civil War.

California has become one of the great agricultural States of the Union. In 1880 it produced 29,017,707 bushels of wheat; 2,000,000 bushels of Indian corn; 1,384,271 bushels of oats; 12,463,561 bushels of barley; 4,636,343 bushels of potatoes, and 1,135,180 tons of hay. The total value of these agricultural crops, aside from its fruits, was over \$100,000,000. These figures must now (1888) be materially increased to represent the actual productions of California. Grapes are cultivated to an enormous extent. In 1880 it had 60,000,000 vines of choicest variety. Its raisins are the finest in the world. California can supply the whole American continent with grapes, raisins, and wine.

The gold and silver mines of California have been marvellously productive. From 1848 to 1880, the value of these metals, mined in that State, and deposited at the mints, was \$703,736,520. Of this amount \$702,058,970 was gold. Yet this statement, made by the Directors of the Mint, does not give the full amount of the production. It is estimated to have been, within that period (thirty-two years), in round numbers, \$1,130,000,000.

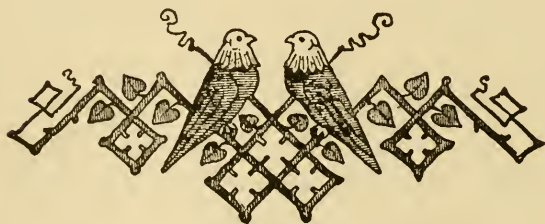
California is beginning to be an extensive manufacturing State. The total value of the products of its manufactures in 1880 was \$116,218,973. It then had within its borders 2212 miles of railways in operation. These have since been greatly increased. The assessed valuation of the real and personal property in the State was \$584,578,000.

There were, in 1880, about 157,000 children of school age enrolled in the public schools, for the support of which the State expended that year over \$3,011,000.

From the ports of San Francisco and San Diego, California carries on quite an extensive foreign commerce, while its inter-State revenue by railways and steamers is still greater. Lines of river steamers ply between its

coast and Alaska and intermediate ports, the Mexican coast, Panama, Chili, and Sandwich Islands and Japan.

The origin of the name of California is attributed to a Spanish romance, said to have been published twenty-five years before Grijalva's discovery, in which is described an island "on the right of the Indies," abounding in gold and pearls, and peopled by black women without any men among them, whose queen was named Calafia. The country was called California. It also bears the name of "The Golden State."



MINNESOTA.

(1846.)



MINNESOTA is one of the north-western States, at the head of the Mississippi Valley. It lies between latitude $43^{\circ} 30'$ and 49° north, and longitude $89^{\circ} 20'$ and $97^{\circ} 5'$ west. On the north it is bounded by British America; on the east by Lake Superior and the State of Wisconsin; south by Iowa, and west by the Territory of Dakota. The area of Minnesota is estimated at 83,365 square miles. Its population (which is rapidly increasing) numbered 780,773 in 1880, of whom 3889, including 2300 Indians, were colored. In the State census of 1885 the population is recorded as 1,117,798, an increase of over 237,000 in five years.

The face of the State of Minnesota is undulating. It has no mountain ranges, or even high hills, yet it is the water-shed of that part of the continent of North America lying east of the Rocky Mountains. It lies about midway between the Atlantic and Pacific oceans, and between Hudson's Bay and the Gulf of Mexico—an elevated plateau, with "a system of lakes and rivers ample for an empire." It has a climate possessed by no other State. It is confidently asserted that it is "the healthiest in the world." Lake Itaska, in the northern part of the State, is the principal source of the Mississippi, whence its waters flow a distance of 2400 miles to the Gulf of Mexico. It flows 797 miles through the State of Minnesota (measured by its sinuous course), 134 of which form its eastern boundary, and is navigable for large steamboats to St. Paul; and above the Falls of St. Anthony, 150 miles further, for smaller boats.

Probably the first Europeans who trod the soil of Minnesota were two Huguenots, Sieur Groselliers and Sieur Radisson, who, in search of a north-west passage to China, passed through this region in 1659. Abandoning the enterprise, they returned to Montreal the next year, with sixty canoes laden with skins of fur-bearing animals. The apparition of this richly freighted flotilla excited the Frenchmen at old Hochelaga, and many were induced to

go to the wilderness beyond the Great Lakes in search of peltries. This was the beginning of the French fur-trade, which afterwards interfered with the Hudson's Bay Company. To secure the trade which the English were seeking to monopolize Daniel Greysolon du Luth, a native of Lyons, proceeded from Quebec in September, 1678, with twenty men, and formed a trading station at the extreme western end of Lake Superior, near where the city of Duluth, in Minnesota, now stands. That city, the site of which was a forest in 1869, was named in compliment to this enterprising Frenchman, it is supposed. Some say it was named for John du Luth, possibly a kinsman of the former, who, in 1769, built a hut there. Father Louis Hennepin, a Franciscan priest, accompanied



HENRY H. SIBLEY, FIRST GOVERNOR OF MINNESOTA.

La Salle and Di Tonti to the Lake country and beyond in 1678. La Salle left Hennepin a little below Peoria in Illinois, to prosecute discovery. With two others he descended the Illinois River to the Mississippi in a canoe, and ascended the great river to the Great Falls. At the beginning of this voyage Hennepin had invoked the aid of St. Anthony of Padua, and he gave his name to the great cataract of the Mississippi—the Falls of St. Anthony. There he carved the arms of France, on a huge beech tree.

Hennepin and his companions were captured by a party of Sioux in the summer of 1680, but were rescued by Duluth and his men. Nicholas Perrot, who came to Canada from France, and became an Indian trader, was in Minnesota with some associates in 1689. They built a fort on Lake Pepin, an expansion of the Upper Mississippi, and formally took possession of the country

in the name of Louis XIV. of France. Le Sueur built another fort in 1695 on an island in the Mississippi, just below the mouth of the St. Croix River, after which French fur-traders flocked into that region. Le Sueur built another fort on the Minnesota River in 1700, but no efforts were made to colonize the country by those traders or by the missionaries.

Jonathan Carver, a native of Connecticut, who was a Captain in the French and Indian war, attempted to explore the vast region in America which was obtained from the French by the Treaty of Paris in 1763. He penetrated to the western extremity of Lake Superior in 1766, crossed the territory afterwards called Minnesota, and during two years traversed the great wilderness about 7000 miles.

In 1783 Minnesota was a part of the region transferred, by treaty, that became a remote portion of the North-west Territory established in 1787. In the year 1800 that part of Minnesota lying east of the Mississippi was embraced in the Territory of Indiana. In 1805 the United States Government purchased a tract of the Indians on the west side of the great river for military purposes, and there Fort Snelling was built (1819, 1820), garrisoned, and became a centre of active trade with the Indians. The National Congress, in 1816, had passed a law for excluding foreigners from the fur-trade in that region.

The traders with the Indians, accustomed to the unrestricted freedom of forest life, were quite unruly for a while, refusing to comply with the regulations of the civil and military governments which good order demanded, but the evil was remedied in time.

In 1820 General Lewis Cass organized an expedition to explore portions of the Upper Mississippi. In this exploration he was engaged many months. Another exploring expedition traversed that region in 1821, led by Major S. H. Long, who had been engaged in explorations of the country between the Mississippi and the Rocky Mountains since 1818. The object of this latter exploration was the discovery of the source of the Mississippi River. For the same purpose, Henry R. Schoolcraft led a party of explorers, and succeeded in establishing the now unquestioned fact, that Lake Itaska is the principal source of that mighty stream.

At that time a small colony of Swiss had settled near the site of present St. Paul, and some lumbering operations had begun by some Americans on the St. Croix River—by the “universal Yankees.” Some parties from Maine, engaged in the lumber trade in their State, purchased

extensive tracts of pine forest lands in Minnesota, and were content to wait until the necessary population of Iowa, Southern Minnesota, and other portions of the Upper Mississippi Valley, should create a demand for building purposes. Then they built saw-mills on the St. Croix, at the Falls of St. Anthony, at Minneapolis, and other points; and very soon the forest, hitherto undisturbed by the workmen's axe, became resonant with the sounds of labor. From that time the growth of the lumber industry in Minnesota has been most marvellous. In 1838 the Indian titles to all lands east of the Mississippi were extinguished. The town of St. Paul was founded in 1842, a few miles below the Falls of St. Anthony, on the east bank of the Mississippi, at the head of navigation, and 2082 miles from its mouth. The first house was built there that year. The place derived its name from a Roman Catholic Chapel (St. Paul's) built there the year before for the use of converted Indians. A town plot was surveyed and recorded in 1847. Two years later it was incorporated as a village, and it was made a city in 1849, in which year Minnesota was created a Territory. At that time the population of the Territory was between four and five thousand.

In 1851 the Indian titles to the lands between the Mississippi and the Red River of the North, which washes a large portion of its western boundary, were extinguished. Emigration then flowed in with a steady and ever-increasing volume. At the end of eight years the number of inhabitants was 150,000.

In 1857 the people of Minnesota applied to Congress for its admission into the Union. On February 29 an enabling act for its admission was passed, and on May 11, 1858, it was admitted as an independent State of the Republic. Henry H. Sibley was chosen its first Governor.

The Governor (Alexander Ramsay) and people of the young State were not only intensely patriotic, but very energetic in everything, and determined to uphold the Republic at all hazards when the spirit of Secession sought to undermine it. Its Legislature assembled at St. Paul on January 29, 1861, and passed a series of patriotic and judicious resolutions by an almost unanimous vote. They declared that:

1. They regarded Secession upon the part of any State as amounting directly to revolution, and precipitating Civil War, with all its sad train of consequences.

2. That the people of the State of Minnesota reiterate their inalienable devotion to the Constitution of the United States, and that, if its provisions

were strictly observed, it would, in its own words, "insure domestic tranquillity, provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and to posterity."

3. That they had heard with astonishment and indignation of the recent outrages perpetrated at Charleston, South Carolina, firing upon an American steamer sailing under the flag of the United States; and expecting the National Government to make every possible effort to uphold the Union, and assert its supremacy; and to check "the work of rebellion and treason" they tendered to the President of the United States for that purpose whatever of men and money might be necessary, to the extent of their ability; and

4. That they would "never consent or submit to the obstruction of the free navigation of the Mississippi River, from its source to its mouth, by any power hostile to the National Government."

The President's call for 75,000 men at the middle of April was responded to with ardor by the people of the State. The troops of Minnesota were among the earliest and bravest in the field; and during the war that State furnished to the National army and navy 25,034 men. At the close of 1861 the Governor, in his message, said: "The State now sends to the protection of the Union a greater number of men than the whole population in 1850."

While Minnesota was thus nobly supporting the cause of the Republic, her own territory was invaded by treacherous barbarians. At midsummer, 1862, bands of warlike Sioux—a nation who had ceded all their lands to the white people in Minnesota—made open war upon the frontier settlers of that State. It is not positively known by what special motives or under what particular influence they were impelled; and the suspicion that they were incited to hostilities by emissaries of the Confederates, with a hope of thereby causing a large number of troops fighting the insurgents to be drawn away to defend their own homes, rests only upon conjecture. It is probable that the Sioux were impelled by their own savage and cowardly instincts to fall upon the defenseless settlers while so many of the stalwart men of the State were absent. A Sioux chief, named Little Crow, a most saintly-mannered savage in civilized costume, was the most conspicuous leader in the inauguration of this war, by the butchery of the white inhabitants at Yellow Medicine, New Ulm, and Cedar City, in Minnesota, in August and September, and at outposts beyond. It is said that he was urged to these deeds against his better judgment, if not against his conscience.

For nine days the fierce barbarians besieged Fort Ridgeley. They also

besieged and once assaulted Fort Abercrombie; and in that region they murdered about five hundred of the scattered inhabitants, who were mostly defenseless women and children. General H. H. Sibley was sent with a body of militia to suppress this outbreak of Indian malice and eagerness for plunder and blood, but he found the barbarians too numerous to allow them to suffer more than temporary disasters here and there. He attacked a large force of Indians under Little Crow at Wood Lake, and drove them into Dakota, with a loss of 500 of their number made prisoners. These were tried by court-martial, and 300 of them were found guilty and sentenced to be hanged. Their execution was stayed by the President of the United States. Finally, thirty-seven of them were hanged at Markota in February, 1863. They were the worst offenders. The remainder were released.

But the "Sioux War" was not ended until the following summer, when General Pope took command of the Department, picketed the line of settlements in the far North-west with 2,000 soldiers, and took vigorous measures to disperse hostile bands. In January, 1863, General Sibley moved westward from Fort Snelling, and General Sully went up the Missouri River to co-operate with him. Both fought and drove the barbarians at different places, and finally scattered them among the wilds of the eastern spurs of the Rocky Mountains. Little Crow was shot while picking blackberries near Hutchinson in Minnesota. His skeleton is preserved among the collections of the Minnesota Historical Society.

The agricultural products of Minnesota are already immense. In 1880 it was reckoned the fifth of the great wheat-growing States of the Union. In that year it produced 34,601,000 bushels of wheat, 14,831,741 bushels of Indian corn, 23,382,158 bushels of oats, and 2,972,965 bushels of barley. It had, in 1880, abundance of farm animals, 257,282 horses, 659,000 cattle, 267,598 sheep, and 381,415 swine. Its wool clip was 1,352,124 pounds.

Minnesota is not yet a heavy manufacturing State, excepting the lumber trade. In 1880 it had 3493 manufacturing establishments, which yielded that year products valued at \$76,000,000. In the same year there were 472,280,000 feet of lumber sawed. At Minneapolis and elsewhere, the manufacture of flour is an industry of enormous extent.

The assessed valuation of real and personal property in Minnesota in 1880 was \$258,028,687. In 1882 it had 3391 miles of railroad in operation within its borders, which cost over \$207,000,000.

In 1880 Minnesota expended \$1,622,919 for the support of its public

schools, in which 180,248 children were enrolled. The whole number of children of school age (five to twenty-one years) was about 273,000. It had six universities and colleges.

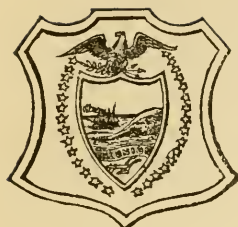
Minnesota is really one of the most beautiful States in the Union, and it promises to be one of the most populous and wealthy of the commonwealths of the Republic. It has no rival—scarcely a peer—as to climate and fertility of soil. Its people seem to appreciate their blessings, and are assiduous in promoting not only their material interests, but intellectual and esthetic tastes. The city of St. Paul, its capital (having a population of about 112,000 in 1885), has recently (1888) acquired a tract of fifty acres, beautifully located on the Mississippi, opposite the mouth of the Minnehaha River, to which it is proposed to add more land for the creation of a public park, thus securing a drive of more than seven miles in extent. The bank of the great river is here over 100 feet in height, and clothed with the primeval forest. Citizens of Minneapolis, a city of marvellous growth at the Falls of St. Anthony, ten miles above St. Paul, which had in 1885 a population of over 120,000, propose to secure the land immediately opposite, including the Falls of Minnehaha, and thence to the Mississippi, for a similar purpose. It has already beautiful parks and drives along the margin of the river.

Minnesota is an Indian word, signifying "Sky-blue Water"—a name they gave to the St. Peter's River. It has been nicknamed "The Gopher State," from the abundance of burrowing animals found in that Commonwealth.



OREGON.

(1811.)



THE most northerly of the Pacific States is Oregon, lying between latitude 42° and $46^{\circ} 18'$ north, and longitude $116^{\circ} 33'$ and $124^{\circ} 25'$ west. It embraces an area of 96,030 square miles, and in 1880 contained a population of 174,768, of whom 11,693 were colored, including 9510 Chinese and 1694 Indians. It is bounded on the north by Washington Territory; on the east by Idaho Territory; on the south by the States of Nevada and California, and on the west by the Pacific Ocean.

The Cascade and Blue ranges divide Oregon into three parts—Western, Middle and Eastern. The eastern part of the State is largely an elevated plateau, broken by mountain ranges. The Sierra Nevada Mountains, that traverse California, pass northward through Oregon; but after entering the latter State they are known as the Cascade Mountains. Near the southern boundary of the State, a branch called the Blue Mountains extends northeasterly through the Commonwealth into Washington and Idaho territories. The coast range, which runs generally parallel with the ocean shore in California, in Oregon consists of a series of highlands, running at right angles with the shore, with valleys and rivers between these highlands running in the same direction. The Cascade Mountains are an average of 110 miles from the coast. Those of the Coast range are everywhere covered with forests to their summits.

The highest peaks of the Cascades are Mount Hood, 11,225 feet; Mount Pitt, 11,000 feet; and Mount Jefferson, 10,200.

Western Oregon generally presents arable and fertile lands. The Willamette Valley, between the Coast and Cascade ranges, is about 150 miles in length and from thirty to forty miles in width, contains 5,000,000 acres of mostly unusually productive land, and contains the principal towns of the State, and nearly two-thirds of its population. The largest river in

Oregon is the Columbia, the entrance to which—a large bay—furnishes the best harbor on the coast.

The first known European visitor of the coast of Oregon was Francis Drake, the great English circumnavigator of the globe, who penetrated to latitude 44° in 1578. It is related that a German pilot in the employ of Spain, named De Tuca, went further up the coast. The Spanish Admiral, Fonta, visited the Oregon coast in 1640, and subsequent navigators made maps of that region as far north as latitude 55° . There is no account of the landing on these shores of any of these navigators. Spain claimed the



SIR FRANCIS DRAKE, PROMINENT IN THE HISTORY OF OREGON.

country as its own, and by treaty in 1790 she gave Great Britain some fishing and trading rights in the vicinity of Puget's Sound.

On May 7, 1792, Captain Robert Gray, of Boston, in the ship *Columbia*, discovered a great river that emptied into the Pacific Ocean, and explored its lower portion. To this stream he gave the name of his ship. This (the Columbia) river forms a greater portion of the dividing line between Oregon and Washington Territory.

After the purchase of Louisiana, Congress, on the suggestion of President Jefferson, authorized an exploration of the country between the Mississippi and the Pacific Ocean. Mr. Jefferson had long desired such an explo-

ration. So early as 1792 he proposed it to the Philosophical Society of Paris, and Michaud, the traveller and botanist, actually undertook the task under the auspices of the French Government. The Revolution caused an abandonment of the enterprise.

President Jefferson now appointed Captain Merriwether Lewis, his private secretary, and William Clarke, brother of George Rogers Clarke (see *Illinois*), to lead an exploring party across the continent. They departed from St. Louis, with forty men, in May, 1804, going up the Missouri River to (present) Council Bluffs, where they held a council with the Indians. They pushed on to the Yellowstone River regions, discovered the hot springs and the "Garden of the Gods," and arrived at the great Falls of the Missouri in June the following year. They crossed the great mountain ranges, found the headwaters of the Columbia River, and passing down the Pacific slope of the mountains, arrived at the mouth of the Columbia at the middle of November, 1805. They had passed through a great number of tribes of barbarians, the most friendly of whom were the Nez Percés. They wintered in sight of the Pacific Ocean, and retraced their steps in the spring of 1806. After an absence of two years and four months, they reached St. Louis September, 1806, having solved a great geographical and topographical question.

In the year 1811 John Jacob Astor and others, who formed the American Fur Company, established a trading-post and built a fort at the mouth of the Columbia River. Mr. Astor had been engaged in the fur trade since 1784, and had accumulated a large fortune, for that period. He furnished all the capital for the American Fur Company. He aimed to establish and monopolize the fur trade between the Pacific coast of North America and China. The fort and trading house were intended to form the nucleus of a permanent colony of white people. The traders and their employees there formed the first white settlement planted on the soil of Oregon.

In the summer of 1812 war broke out between the United States and Great Britain. It led to the ruin of the hopes of Mr. Astor and his associates, of forming a vast fur-trade establishment on the Pacific coast, for the British fur traders, their rivals, found in this exigency a fair pretext for making efforts to obtain possession of Astoria, by force, if necessary. In the summer of 1813, representatives of the "British North-west Company" visited Astoria. News of the declaration of war had reached that post in January. The visitors now informed the agent of the "Pacific Fur Company," as Mr. Astor had named his association, that a privateer had been despatched from

London, with instructions to seize Astoria, and all its possessions, it being reported to the Lords of the Admiralty that it was an important colony founded by the United States Government. These agents remained long, hoping for the arrival of the privateer, and deepening the impression of imminent danger on the mind of the agent of the Pacific Fur Company.

Expecting the arrival of this war-ship to seize the property at any moment, the agent finally listened favorably to a proposition by the representatives of the North-western Company, to buy the whole establishment. A bargain to that end was made, and the papers were signed, in October, 1813. The price was almost a nominal one. The shrewd visitors took possession immediately; and hauling down the American flag, ran up the British ensign, to the chagrin of every American resident there. The name of Astoria was temporarily changed to that of Fort George. The post soon afterwards passed into the possession of the Hudson's Bay Company.

Having thus procured a lodgment on the Columbia River, the British claimed the whole country drained by its tributaries. The United States, by the acknowledged right of discovery, claimed that region as well as British Columbia, in which that river had its rise. A serious controversy then began between the United States and Great Britain. In 1818 a treaty was concluded between the two nations, which provided that the citizens of each should jointly occupy the region for ten years. This was renewed for an indefinite period, each party having the right to end the agreement at any time by giving twelve months' notice to the other.

Meanwhile emigration to Oregon from the United States began in 1832. In 1834 Dr. Marcus Whitman and Rev. Mr. Spaulding led a missionary colony into that region, and established stations 150 miles apart in the region of the Willamette River, the principal tributary of the Columbia River. These were the first permanent colonies properly of white people in Oregon. The wives of these missionaries were the first white women seen there, and their children were the first of European blood who breathed the air of Oregon. Other emigrants soon followed.

In 1839 the United States gave Great Britain notice that it should end the operation of the treaty within a year, and preparations were made for the occupation of the country by American citizens. Then Great Britain claimed the whole territory to latitude $54^{\circ} 40'$ north, which included the whole of Oregon and the present Washington Territory. The United States offered to compromise by drawing the northern line of its possessions along the

parallel of $49^{\circ} 40'$. The British persisted in their claim, and during the canvass for President of the United States, in 1844, "Texas" and "Oregon" became a part of the battle-cry of the Democratic party.

At the Democratic National Nominating Convention, held at Baltimore, they had declared, by resolution, "that our title to the whole of the territory of Oregon is clear and unquestionable; that no portion of the same ought to be ceded to England or to any other power; and that the re-occupation of Oregon and the re-annexation of Texas [which was claimed as a part of Louisiana, purchased from France] at the earliest practicable period, are great American measures, which this committee recommend to the cordial support of the democracy of the Union."

The former proposition was popular at the north, and the latter proposition was popular at the south. There was much excitement during the canvass, and the war-cry of "Fifty-four Forty, or Fight!" was often heard until after the elections. A conservative and peaceful spirit finally prevailed, and a compromise with Great Britain was effected. The northern boundary of our Republic was fixed at the parallel of 49° by a treaty concluded in 1846. In 1848 Oregon was created a Territory, and including the present Territory of Washington; and in 1849 its first Territorial Legislature met its first appointed Governor, Joseph Lane. George Abernethy had been provisional Governor from 1845 to 1849.

In March, 1853, the Territory of Oregon was divided into two nearly equal parts, and the northern half was erected into a Territory named Washington, which took all of the domain north of the Columbia River. The population of Oregon, which had been drawn upon by the attraction of California mines, had so rapidly increased that in 1857 a popular Convention framed a State Constitution, and application was made to Congress for its admission as a State. That act was performed on February 14, 1859, when John Whittaker was chosen the first Governor.

As a rule the increase in population in Oregon has been rather tardy as compared with other Western States. Since the opening of railroads in the Willamette Valley, and the discovery of gold in Eastern Oregon, its growth has been much more rapid. Some of the Indian tribes, who are so numerous in Oregon, and were sometimes hostile, were a restraint upon immigration.

The last Indian war of much importance was that begun with the Modocs in 1872. These Indians had showed hostile feelings towards the white peo-

ple for more than twenty years. A treaty had been made with them in 1864, providing for the setting apart for them 708,000 acres of land in Southern Oregon. Some of the tribe had settled there; others, led by a chief known as "Captain Jack," a conspicuous warrior, preferred to remain where they were, but suddenly consented to go. Troubles with other Indians caused the Modocs to leave the reservation and begin anew their depredations.

It was finally determined to compel the Modocs to go to their reservation, when the Indians, under the immediate leadership of Captain Jack, broke out into open war late in 1872, and in one day eleven citizens were murdered. In January, 1873, a severe engagement occurred between the United States troops and the barbarians, who were strongly intrenched among rocks and vast lava-beds. All attempts to dislodge them were futile, and a peace commission was appointed to confer with them. That commission reported (March 3, 1873) that the Modocs had agreed to surrender their arms and go to their reservation.

On the following day the commissioners were compelled to report that the Indians had changed their minds, rejected all propositions for their removal, and refused to go to the reservation. Then another peace commission was created, composed of General Canby, Rev. Dr. Thomas and others. They found the Modocs, under the influence of Captain Jack, very insolent in their bearing, and showing unmistakeable signs of hostile feeling. Finally, on the 11th April, 1873, while the commissioners were engaged in a council with the barbarians, General Canby and Dr. Williams were murdered by them, the Indians stealing upon them in the most cowardly manner.

This treachery caused the Government to make the most vigorous war upon the Modocs, and before June they were driven from the lava-beds and were completely subdued. Captain Jack, deserted by most of his followers, was finally captured, with several participants in the murders. The Chief and three of his companions were hanged.

Oregon, especially its western portion, is a promising agricultural State. In 1880 it produced 7,480,000 bushels of wheat 4,385,650 bushels of oats, 920,977 bushels of barley, 126,862 bushels of Indian corn, and considerable rye and buckwheat. It has numerous farm animals, and promises to be a great wool-growing State. In 1880 it had 124,107 horses, 416,242 cattle, 1,083,162 sheep, and 156,222 swine. The wool-clip amounted to 5,718,526 pounds.

The salmon fisheries of Oregon are very valuable. There were 1,615,761 of these fishes packed, in 1880, valued at \$2,786,000. Its manufactures are

becoming quite extensive. Its principal industry is flouring grain and in the works of lumber. In 1880 there were 1744 manufacturing establishments in Oregon, the value of the aggregate products of which was \$13,342,130.

In 1880 there were 689 miles of railroads in operation in Oregon, which cost \$29,794,000. The assessed value of property in the State, real and personal, was \$52,522,000 in 1880.

The number of children of school age in 1880 was 59,615, of whom 37,437 were enrolled in the public schools. The State expended for public instruction that year \$314,885. There were eight universities or colleges.

The name of Oregon is derived from the Spanish for "Wild Thyme," which is abundant there.

The largest town in Oregon is Portland, on the Willamette River. In 1880 it had 17,577 inhabitants. The next largest town is Astoria, which had a population of 2803. Salem its capital, had 2,538.



KANSAS.

(1861.)



GEOGRAPHICALLY, Kansas is the Central State of the Union, and is one of the central tier of Western States. It lies between 37° and 40° north latitude, and $94^{\circ} 38'$ and 102° west longitude. On the north it is bounded by Nebraska, on the east by Missouri, on the south by the Indian Territory, and on the west by Colorado.

There are 38,080 square miles of area embraced within its territory, and its population, in 1880, was 996,096. With Kansas, as with all other States—the Western or newer ones especially—there should be great additions made to their census to be accurate now (1888).

The whole State of Kansas slopes gently from the foot-hills of the Rocky Mountains, near its western border, to the Missouri River. The general surface is undulating prairie, or, more properly speaking, a rolling prairie. There are no mountains in the State, but there are high lands in almost every part, especially in its eastern portion and along its western border. Near the Arkansas River, in the south-west, is an elevation 3000 feet in height, and at another part in the western portion hills rise to over 3000 feet. The north-west border of the State is washed by the Missouri River.

The portion of Kansas lying east of the 100th meridian was a part of Louisiana, purchased from France, and was at first included in one of the territories into which that domain was divided. It seems to have been first visited by Europeans in 1719, when M. Du Tisne, a French officer, and some companions, explored a portion of it. Lewis and Clarke passed up the Missouri River on its borders in 1804, on their way through the wilderness to the Pacific Ocean (see *Oregon*). In 1827 the National Government built a fort on the Missouri River within the borders of Kansas, and named it Leavenworth, around which a settlement grew; but until 1854 Kansas was mostly occupied by the barbarians. By the terms of the "Missouri Compromise"

(see *Missouri*), made in 1820, slavery was forever forbidden in the territory north of the northern boundary of Missouri, or latitude $36^{\circ} 30'$ north.

The region of Kansas was early known to be one of great fertility. Across it was the great pathway to Utah, in the heart of the Continent, and to the Pacific Ocean. The people of the Eastern States, who had begun to settle there, became anxious that the Indian reservations that spread over its eastern part should be bought by the National Government and thrown open to white settlers. Petitions to that effect were presented to Congress, and in December, 1852, a bill was introduced into the House of Representatives to organize the "Territory of the Platte," by which indefinite name the Kansas region was then distinguished.



CHARLES ROBINSON, FIRST GOVERNOR OF KANSAS.

This matter was referred to the Territorial Committee, which reported a bill in February, 1853, to organize the "Territory of Nebraska." These territories were north of the prescribed limit of the slave system. Southern members of Congress at once endeavored to provide for opening the new Territory to their peculiar labor system. Those from the free-labor States opposed the movement. Finally, in January, 1854, Senator Douglas of Illinois introduced a bill for dividing the district into two Territories, to be called respectively Kansas and Nebraska. He also offered a bill to repeal the restrictive portion of the Missouri Compromise respecting slavery, and leave the question of free and slave labor to be decided by the settlers in those Territories.

This movement created the most intense feeling of antagonism between the people of the free-labor and slave-labor States. The land was shaken by

the most violent controversies in and out of Congress. After long and bitter discussions in both Houses of Congress, the bill was passed, and received the signature of President Pierce, on May 31, 1854. From that moment the question of Slavery agitated the nation until it was abolished in 1863. It was one of the most influential causes which brought about the formation of the Republican party the same year, the prime aim of which was the abolition or restriction of the slave system.

The vital question was now presented to the people of the United States—"Shall the domain of the Republic become the theatre of all *Free* labor or all *Slave* labor, with the corresponding civilization of such conditions as a consequence?" This was a trumpet call to the "irrepressible conflict" between Freedom and Slavery, which now began.

Kansas, being a more fertile territory than Nebraska, attracted the greater number of settlers, and it became the arena of the first great skirmishes in the conflict. Believing that the Northern people, governed by their commercial interests, would yield to those of the South, as heretofore, the former made no special efforts to settle the new territories; but political leaders in Missouri, having resolved that Kansas should be made a slave-labor State, when they saw immigrants flocking into Kansas from North and East, took vigorous measures to stay the tide of emigrants from these States. An adventurous spirit was aroused in the North. The free-labor people acted at once, and within a few months after the Territories were organized, the town of Lawrence was founded by one hundred families from New England. Other settlements were soon planted by a similar class of citizens, and the population rapidly increased.

Alarmed by these movements, and perceiving that the new settlers, by the ballot-box, would soon again acquire political domination in the new Territory, the friends of the slave-labor system proceeded to organize physical forces in Missouri to counteract this moral force. Combinations were formed under various names—"Social Band," "Friends of Society," "Blue Lodge," "Sons of the South," and others. Already a powerful organization, under the title of the "Emigrant Aid Society," had been formed in Boston, with the sanction of the Massachusetts Legislature, immediately after the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska bill. The Southern societies above mentioned were formed to counteract the New England association.

At a meeting held at Westport, Missouri, early in July, 1854, it was resolved that associated Missourians should be ready, at all times, to assist

when called upon to do so by pro-slavery citizens of Kansas, in removing from the Territory by force every person who should attempt to settle there under the auspices of the "Emigrant Aid Society." And now both parties proceeded to plant the seeds of their respective systems of civilization in the virgin soil of Kansas. They founded towns, the pro-slavery men establishing theirs in the vicinity of the Mississippi River.

Immediately after the passage of the Kansas-Nebraska bill hundreds of Missourians went to Kansas, selected a tract of land and put a mortgage upon it, for the purpose of establishing a sort of pre-emption title to it. At a public meeting they adopted the following:

"*Resolved*—That we will afford no protection to an abolitionist as a settler in this Territory; that we recognize the institution of Slavery as already existing in the Territory, and advise slave-holders to introduce their property as soon as possible."

A. H. Reeder having been appointed Governor of the Territory of Kansas by the President of the United States, he arrived there in October, 1854, and took measures for the election of a Territorial Legislature. With the close of the election in the following March, the struggle for supremacy between the friends and opposers of the slave system began most vigorously. The pro-slavery men had an overwhelming majority in the Legislature, for hundreds of Missourians had gone over the border and voted. And when, in November, 1854, a delegate to Congress was elected, several hundred of the nearly 2900 votes cast were put in by Missourians. At the election of the Legislature, 6218 votes were polled, while there were only 1410 legal voters in the Territory. Most of that excess was furnished by Missouri. Fully 1000 men came from Missouri, fully armed, with rifles, muskets and pistols, two cannons, and tents, who were led by Claiborne F. Jackson, who, as Governor of Missouri, in 1861, plunged that State into the vortex of Civil War. (See *Missouri*.) They encamped around the little town of Lawrence, and in like manner every poll in the Territory was controlled.

A reign of terror now began in Kansas. All classes of men carried deadly weapons. The illegally chosen Legislature met at a point on the border of Missouri, and proceeded to enact stringent laws for upholding slavery in the Territory. These Governor Reeder vetoed, and they were instantly passed over his veto. He became so obnoxious to the pro-slavery party that President Pierce removed him at their request, and sent another more acceptable to them to fill his place.

In September, 1855, the actual settlers in Kansas held a Convention, and resolved not to recognize the laws of the illegally constituted Legislature as binding upon them. They refused to vote for a delegate to Congress at a Convention ordered by that Legislature, and they called a delegate Convention to assemble at Topeka in October. At that Convention ex-Governor Reeder was elected to Congress by the legal voters. Another Convention assembled at the same place a few days later, framed a State Constitution, which made Kansas a free-labor State, and asked for its admission to the Union as such.

Now the strife between Freedom and Slavery was transferred to the National capital. Reeder made a contest for a seat in Congress with the delegate chosen by the illegal votes. Meanwhile elections had been held in Kansas under the legally adopted new State Constitution. The pro-slavery party in the Territory became disheartened and perplexed, when President Pierce relieved and strengthened them by a message, on January 24, 1856, in which he declared that the action of the legal voters in Kansas in framing a new Constitution was rebellion.

All through the ensuing spring violence and bloodshed prevailed in the unhappy Territory. Perceiving that the actual settlers were determined to maintain their rights, armed men flocked into the Territory from the slave-labor States, and attempted to coerce the inhabitants into submission to the laws of the illegally chosen Legislature. Finally, Congress sent thither a committee of investigation. A majority reported, in July, 1856, that every election had been controlled by citizens of Missouri, and that the State Constitution was the choice of the majority of the people of Kansas.

The canvass for a new President of the Republic soon absorbed the attention of the nation, and Kansas had peace, for a while. James Buchanan, the Democratic candidate, was elected. When he took the chair of state, he favored the pro-slavery party, and his strong support gave them renewed strength in Kansas. The newly formed Republican party came to the aid of the anti-slavery people there, and the opposing parties worked with great energy for the admission of Kansas as a State, but with opposite ends in view.

Early in September, 1857, the pro-slavery party, in Convention at Lecompton, framed a State Constitution, which contained a clause providing that the rights of property in slaves now in the Territory "shall in no manner be interfered with," and forbade any amendments of the instrument until

1864. It was submitted to the votes of the people in December, but by the terms of an election law, passed by the illegally chosen Legislature, no one might vote *against* that Constitution. The vote must be for "The Constitution *with* Slavery," or "The Constitution *without* Slavery." In either case a Constitution that cherished and perpetuated slavery would be voted for.

At an election for a Territorial Legislature, meanwhile, the friends of free labor had been successful. They had chosen their delegate to a seat in Congress. The legally elected Legislature ordered the Lecompton Constitution to be submitted to the people for adoption or rejection, when it was rejected by over 10,000 majority. Notwithstanding this expression of the popular will, the President sent the rejected Constitution to Congress, with a message, in which he recommended its acceptance and ratification, and, referring to an opinion expressed by Chief Justice Taney, said:

"It has been solemnly adjudged by the highest tribunal known to our laws, that slavery exists in Kansas by virtue of the Constitution of the United States. Kansas is, therefore, at this moment, as much a slave State as Georgia or South Carolina."

The Senate of the United States accepted the Lecompton Constitution, but the House of Representatives decided that it should be again submitted to the legal voters of Kansas. It was done, and it was rejected by over 10,000 majority. The political power in Kansas was now in the custody of the friends of Freedom, but they had to endure a further struggle to maintain and exercise it.

Early in April, 1856, armed men from Southern States, led by a colonel of militia, arrived in Kansas and were taken into the pay of the Government by the United States Marshal, who armed them with Government muskets. They besieged Lawrence in May, when the inhabitants, under a promise of safety to persons and property, were induced to give up their arms to the Sheriff. The invaders immediately entered the defenseless town, destroyed a printing-office and a hotel, and plundered dwellings and stores. Elsewhere the free-labor men, furnished with arms from the free-labor States, were forced into bloody collisions at several places. Emigrants from free-labor States passing through Missouri were turned back by armed parties. In August the acting Governor declared the Territory of Kansas in a state of rebellion. He, with a notorious invader from Missouri, attacked Ossawatimie, where several persons were killed and wounded and thirty houses were

burned. The place was defended by a small band under the (afterwards) famous John Brown.

This reign of lawlessness and violence was checked by the new Governor, J. W. Geary, who, in September, ordered all armed men in the Territory to lay down their weapons. In defiance of this order, about 2000 Missourians, led by a member of the Missouri Legislature, marched to attack Lawrence, but the Governor, with United States troops, persuaded them to desist. At the close of the year peace was restored to Kansas. Lawrence had been twice besieged, and Potawatomie, Ossawatomie, and Leavenworth had been partially destroyed. Four Constitutions had been successively voted upon in the space of four years.

The present (1888) Constitution of Kansas, adopted by a Convention at Wyandotte July 5, 1859, was ratified on October 4, the same year. On January 29, 1861, the Territory was admitted into the Union as a Free-labor State, with Charles Robinson as its first Governor. It was zealously loyal to the Union during the Civil War, and furnished to the National army more than 20,000 soldiers. It was several times invaded by raiding parties from the Confederate army west of the Mississippi. One of these parties sacked and burned Lawrence.

Kansas is rapidly growing in population and wealth. Nearly all its soil is very fertile. In 1880 it produced 105,729,325 bushels of Indian corn, 17,324,141 bushels of wheat, and 8,180,385 bushels of oats. In corn production it ranks sixth in the Union. In 1880 it had 430,907 horses, 1,451,000 cattle, 499,571 sheep, and 1,787,969 swine.

Kansas is quite rapidly developing manufacturing industries. Its bituminous coal-fields cover 17,000 square miles. It had, in 1880, 3439 miles of railroads in operation within its borders, which cost \$64,123,872. The assessed valuation of real and personal property in the State was \$16,891,689.

In 1880 there were 348,647 children of school age in Kansas, of whom 231,434 were enrolled in the public schools. The State expended for common schools \$1,819,561. It has a State university, an agricultural college, and six other colleges.

Kansas is an Indian word, signifying "Smoky Water." It is called "The Garden of the West."

WEST VIRGINIA.

(1863.)



WEST VIRGINIA is one of the Central States of the Union, lying between latitude $37^{\circ} 6'$ and $40^{\circ} 40'$ north, and longitude $77^{\circ} 40'$ and $82^{\circ} 35'$ west. Its area is 24,780 square miles, and its population in 1880 was 610,457, of whom 25,920 were colored, including 29 Indians. The State is bounded on the north-west by Ohio, on the north-north-east and east-north-east by Pennsylvania and Maryland, on the east-south-east and south by Virginia, and on the south-west by Virginia and Kentucky.

The general topographical aspect of West Virginia is that of a hilly country with fertile valleys. Of the latter the Shenandoah Valley is the most extensive and productive. The north-east part of the State is crossed by the Alleghany Mountains. West of them are ranges supposed to be a prolongation of the Cumberland Mountains. The valley between these ranges and the Alleghanies is elevated from 1200 to 2000 feet above the sea. The scenery of the whole State is grand and beautiful. That about Harper's Ferry is unsurpassed in picturesqueness. There are no considerable lakes. Its streams flow into the Ohio River.

West Virginia formed the west and north-west portions of Virginia—the "Old Dominion"—until the latter adopted an ordinance of Secession in the spring of 1861. The members of the Secession Convention for this region of the Commonwealth were nearly all Unionists. Before the adjournment of that Convention, the inhabitants of the hilly and mountain region, where the slave population was comparatively small, had met at various places to consult upon public affairs. At the first of these (at Clarksburg, April 22, 1861) a member of the Convention (J. S. Carlisle) offered a series of resolutions calling an assembly of delegates of the people at Wheeling on May 13. They were adopted. Similar Conventions were held elsewhere. At Kingwood, in Preston county, on May 4, a Convention declared that the separation of Western from Eastern Virginia was essential to the maintenance of their

liberties. They also resolved to elect a representative to the National Congress.

These bold declarations were echoed from several points. About 400 delegates met at Wheeling on the appointed day. The chief topics of discussion were on the division of the State and the formation of a new one composed of forty or fifty counties of the mountain region. There was remarkable unanimity of sentiment in the Convention against longer submitting to the control of the slaveholders of the State; also of love for the Union. It condemned the Ordinance of Secession, and called a provisional Convention to assemble at the same place on June 11, if the obnoxious ordinance



ARTHUR J. BOREMAN, FIRST GOVERNOR OF WEST VIRGINIA.

should be ratified by the people. A Central Committee was appointed, who issued an address to the people of North-western Virginia.

These proceedings thoroughly alarmed the Secessionists. Expecting an armed revolt in Western Virginia, the Governor ordered a military commander of State troops at Grafton to seize arms at Wheeling, cut off telegraphic communication between that city and Washington, and to destroy the Baltimore and Ohio railroad if troops from Ohio or Pennsylvania should attempt to take possession of it.

The Convention met at Wheeling on June 11. Arthur J. Boreman was chosen president. A committee was appointed to draw up a Bill of Rights. All allegiance to the Southern Confederacy was totally denied, and it was declared that all officers in Virginia who adhered to it were suspended and

their offices vacated. They condemned the Ordinance of Secession, and called upon all citizens who had taken up arms for the Confederacy to lay them down. They adopted measures for a provisional Government, and for the election of officers for six months.

This was not secession from Virginia, but purely revolutionary. On June 17 they adopted a declaration of independence of the old Government of Virginia. It was signed by fifty-six members present. On the 20th there was a unanimous vote in favor of a separation of Western from Eastern Virginia; and on the same day a provisional Government was organized by the appointment of Francis H. Pierrepont, Governor; Daniel Polsley, Lieutenant-Governor; and an Executive Council of five members.

Governor Pierrepont immediately notified the President of the United States of insurrection in Western Virginia, and asked aid to suppress it. He raised \$12,000 for the public use, pledging his own private fortune for the amount. A Legislature was elected, and met at Wheeling on the first of July, when John S. Carlisle and Waitman T. Wylley were chosen to represent "the restored Commonwealth" in the Senate of the United States.

These movements were not intended for Western Virginia alone, but for the whole State. Governor Pierrepont said—"It was not the object of the Wheeling Convention to set up a new Government in the State, or separate, or other Government than the one under which they had always lived."

But circumstances altered the case. On the 20th of August, 1861, the Convention re-assembled and passed an ordinance for the organization of a new State, which was submitted to the people and by them ratified. At a session of the Convention in November following, the name of "West Virginia" was given to the new State. A Constitution was framed, which the people ratified on May 3, 1862. The Governor convened the Legislature the 6th of the same month, which passed an act giving its consent to the formation of a new State. It forwarded to Congress this consent, together with an official copy of the Constitution adopted by the people, with a request that the new State might be admitted into the Union.

In December following Congress passed an act for the admission of West Virginia to an equal position with the other States. It was approved by the President on December 31. Certain conditions were required to be complied with by the new Commonwealth before absolute admission. This was duly performed, and on April 20, 1863, the President of the United States proclaimed that West Virginia was an independent State of the Union. Its in-

auguration took place at Wheeling on June 20, with imposing ceremonies. Arthur J. Boreman was chosen its first Governor.

The inherent energies of the people of West Virginia were displayed in a remarkable degree from the birth of the Commonwealth. During the war, in the midst of which its nativity occurred, the State furnished fully 30,000 troops to the National army, yet the people were much divided in sentiment, and a large number of men enlisted in the Confederate army. The State was repeatedly invaded by the Confederates, especially in the regions bordering on the old State. The Kanawha Valley was the scene of several severe battles early in the war, but at the later period the State was exempt from hostilities.

Since the war West Virginia has been prosperous, and its resources have been rapidly developed. Its river and railway commerce is very large. In 1884 it had 148 steam vessels employed in freight and passage traffic, and there were over 700 miles of railroads in operation within its borders.

The principal crops of West Virginia are Indian corn, wheat and oats. In 1880 it produced 14,090,609 bushels of corn, 4,000,000 bushels of wheat, 1,908,505 bushels of oats, and considerable rye, buckwheat and barley. Tobacco is quite extensively cultivated. The yield of tobacco in 1880 was 2,296,146 pounds. In 1885 here were raised 15,827,000 bushels of corn, 1,493,000 bushels of wheat, and 2,831,000 bushels of oats.

West Virginia had 2375 manufacturing establishments in 1880, with \$13,883,390 invested in these industries. The value of the aggregate product was \$22,867,126. The assessed value of the real and personal property of the State last year was \$163,516,336.

The number of children of school age in the State in 1880 was 210,113, of whom 143,796 were enrolled in the public schools. The State expended in that year for public schools \$720,967.

West Virginia is sometimes called "The Pan-Handle State," because of a long, narrow projection of the territory in the northern part of the Commonwealth, between the Ohio River and the State of Pennsylvania.



NEVADA.

(1864.)



NEVADA is one of the Pacific States of the Union. It is the least populous and least in agricultural and manufactured products of all the States, as it is one of the younger of the Commonwealths. It lies between latitude 35° and 42° north and 114° and 120° west longitude.

It embraces an area of 110,700 square miles, and in 1880 had a population of 62,266, of whom 8710 were colored, including 5416 Chinese and 2803 Indians. On its northern boundary is the State of Oregon and Territory of Idaho; on its eastern side are the Territories of Utah and Arizona; and on its south-west and west borders lies California.

The surface of Nevada is generally mountainous. The greater part of it is included in the great American Basin, which has for its walls the Sierra Nevada on the west and the Wasatch Mountains on the east. This is a vast table-land, averaging in elevation about 4000 feet above the sea. Above this level some mountain peaks rise from 1000 to 8000 feet. About 12,000 square miles in the south-east portion of the State are outside of the basin.

It is estimated that two-thirds of Nevada is a bleak desert, which can neither be inhabited nor cultivated. It has no large river. One-third of Lake Tahoe, mentioned in our sketch of California, lies within Nevada. It appears to be pure spring water. Although it lies at the elevation of 6000 feet above the sea, it never freezes. Its temperature seldom varies from fifty-seven degrees in winter and summer. In one region of the mountain ranges there is a considerable number of streams, which have the peculiarity of suddenly disappearing from the surface, and re-appearing in the form of lakes or pools.

Nevada was a part of the cession of Mexico to the United States made by the treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo in 1848. (See *California*.) It remained a part of California until the creation of the Territory of Utah in 1856, when it became a part of that domain. It remained a portion of

the western part of Utah until March, 1861, when the Nevada Territory was organized, with somewhat smaller boundaries than those of the present State. Some additions were made to the area of the State by Congress in 1866.

The mineral wealth of Nevada caused much emigration thither, and its population rapidly increased. In the fall of 1864 the people of the Territory, in delegate Convention assembled, prepared a State Constitution, by the authority of an enabling act passed by Congress in the spring of that year. They were very anxious to be admitted to the Union as a State, in time to



HENRY G. BLAISDELL, FIRST GOVERNOR OF NEVADA.

cast a vote at the Presidential election in November. The time was too short to allow them to send the Constitution to Washington by an ordinary messenger in season to win that privilege, so they sent it on the swift wings of lightning. They telegraphed the Constitution to the President, who, on the 31st day of October, 1864, issued a proclamation that "the State of Nevada was admitted into the Union on an equal footing with the original States." This good news was sent back by telegraph. Within a week afterwards the election was held, and 16,426 voters were cast in Nevada; 9826 for Mr. Lincoln and 6594 for General McClellan, giving Lincoln a majority of 3232. Henry G. Blaisdell was chosen the first Governor of the new State.

The enabling act required the people of the State to prohibit slavery within their domain; to guarantee perfect toleration of religious sentiment, and to disclaim all right and title to the unappropriated public lands lying within their territory.

Nevada is the richest State in the Union, in respect to its mineral resources. No region in the world is richer in argentiferous lodes. These are found scattered over the entire Washoe country, the richest of which—the “Comstock lode”—had yielded immense amounts of silver. There “Virginia City” grew up in a day, as it were. In 1864 it was the second city in population on the Pacific coast. The late J. Ross Brown has given the following account of the finding of silver in the Washoe region:

“Patrick McLoughlin was working for gold in a gulch or ravine, where he was making \$10 a day to the hand. He followed it up, finding it paying better and better, until it gave out altogether, when he and his companions struck a vein of pure sulphuret of silver. They at first supposed it to be coal, but observing it to be heavy concluded it must be valuable. They sent one of their number to San Francisco to ascertain its value.

“The lump was given to Killalee, an old Mexican miner, to assay. He took it home and assayed the ore. The result was so astounding that the old man became terribly excited. The next morning he was found dead in his bed. He had been in poor health for some time, and the excitement killed him.

“Search was immediately made for the original deposit, which resulted in the discovery of the famous ‘Comstock lode.’ When first found this lode had no outcropping, or other indications to denote its presence.” This mine yielded, in 1864, silver valued at \$10,425,350. The lode was discovered in June, 1859.

The agricultural products of Nevada are comparatively meagre. Owing to the scarcity of water supply, irrigation is much resorted to. Some of its mountain slopes are good grazing lands, and raising of cattle is becoming an important industry. In 1880 there were in Nevada 32,087 horses, 172,221 cattle, 133,695 sheep, and 9100 swine. There were 69,298 bushels of wheat, 12,891 bushels of corn, 186,860 bushels of oats, and 513,470 bushels of barley raised. The wool-clip of 1880 was 655,000 pounds.

The manufactures of Nevada are confined almost wholly to milling and mining industries. The reports of the United States mint show that, to 1884, nearly \$80,000,000 in silver and \$16,000,000 in gold had been coined from

Nevada. The mining of these precious metals required much machinery. There were in the State, in 1880, 143 quartz crushing-mills. The value of the total products of manufactures that year was estimated at \$32,534,605. Nevada had within its borders 900 miles of railway, which cost \$16,570,715.

The assessed value of taxable property, real and personal, in Nevada in 1880 was \$27,598,658. The interests of popular education are looked after with enlightened generosity. There were enrolled in the public schools 8918 children of school age, and, in 1880, \$212,164 were paid for the support of public schools.

Nevada is the Spanish word signifying "Snow Cloud," referring to the Sierra Nevada ranges, which are on its western border.



NEBRASKA.

(1867).



NEBRASKA is one of the Central States of the Union. It lies between latitude 40° and 43° north, and longitude $95^{\circ} 23'$ and 104 west. The Territory of Dakota is on its northern border; the States of Iowa and Illinois, from which it is separated by the Missouri River, are on its eastern boundary; the States of Kansas and Colorado, and the Territory of Wyoming, on the west. Its area is 76,855 square miles. In 1880 Nebraska had a population of 452,402, of whom 2638 were colored, including 235 Indians.

Through its entire length, east and west, the country dips towards the Missouri River, it being upon the slope of the great central basin of the North American continent. The larger portion of the State is elevated, undulating prairie. It has some moderate hills. The river beds are deeply eroded by the action of the water, and the bluffs which line them, rising sometimes two or three hundred feet above them, give an appearance of hills where none exist. The eastern portion of the State is well watered and generally very fertile. In the western part of the State is a region ninety miles in length and thirty in width, known as the "Bad Lands." It is composed of sterile soil, and, seen at a distance, appears like a region of remains of civilization, the prismatic and columnar masses appearing like ruins of modern architecture. Among them may be found tracts of good land. The principal stream of the State is the Platte or Nebraska River.

Nebraska was a part of the Louisiana territory, purchased from France in 1803. Lewis and Clarke traversed it in 1804 (see *Oregon*), who were probably the first white men who explored it from east to west. When, in 1812, Louisiana was admitted into the Union as a State, that domain formed a part of the territory of Missouri. It was then occupied by powerful and warlike barbarians, and seemed unfitted for occupation by a civilized people. Still,

a few settlements were early made by enterprising adventurers in its eastern portions; and from about 1840, population there increased quite rapidly.

In 1844 a movement was made in Congress for the organization of (now) Nebraska, and a larger region, into a Territory. Another bill for the same purpose was submitted to Congress in 1849, but nothing more was then done. Finally, in 1854, Senator Douglas introduced a bill for dividing the domain, and the erection within it of two Territories to be called respectively Nebraska and Kansas. It became a law in May, 1854, when the two Territories were created. (See *Kansas*.) Nebraska then included a part of Dakota, Montana, most of Wyoming, and the north-eastern part of Colorado. It was made a free-labor Territory.



DAVID BUTLER, FIRST GOVERNOR OF NEBRASKA.

In 1861 and 1863 the area of Nebraska was greatly diminished by the setting off of the Territories of Dakota, Colorado, Wyoming, and Montana. As the Pacific Railroad, which had its eastern terminus at Omaha, began to stretch eastward, and the agricultural advantages of Nebraska became known, population flowed in quite rapidly.

On March 24, 1864, Congress passed an act to enable the citizens of Nebraska to form a State Constitution and Government, preparatory to its admission into the Union as a State. Its conditions were complied with, and in January, 1867, a bill was introduced in the United States Senate to admit the Territory into the Union, to take effect only "on the fundamental and perpetual condition" that there should be no abridgment or denial of the exercise of the elective franchise by reason of race or color, except in the

case of Indians, not taxed. This act passed both Houses of Congress, but was vetoed by President Johnston, mainly on the ground that the conditions imposed upon the people of that Territory by that act were indirectly in conflict with one of the provisions of their Constitution which they had framed. He said—"The people of the States can alone make or change their organic laws, and prescribe the qualifications requisite for electors." The act was formally passed over his veto, and on March 1, 1867, Nebraska entered the Union as an equal and independent State, with David Butler as its first Governor.

In March, 1867, Congress provided for a geological survey of the State. Lincoln having been selected as the State capital, and made the centre of several projected railroads, the population of the new State increased rapidly from this period. The people were scourged by Indian depredations for some years, but peace has long reigned in that region. Its fine climate and good soil attract immigration, and agriculture is the leading industry of the State, together with cattle-raising.

In 1880 there were raised in Nebraska 65,450,135 bushels of Indian corn, 13,847,000 bushels of wheat, 6,555,875 bushels of oats, 1,744,686 bushels of barley, and 424,348 bushels of rye. There were on the farms 204,864 horses, 20,000 mules and asses, 754,550 cattle, 200,000 sheep, and 1,241,724 swine. The wool-clip that year yielded 1,282,656 pounds. There were raised in the State 57,979 pounds of tobacco.

The manufacturing establishments of Nebraska are rapidly increasing. In 1880 there were 1403. The number has probably nearly doubled. That year the value of their aggregate products was \$12,627,336. At the beginning of 1882 there were 2310 miles of railway in Nebraska, which cost \$172,057,659. The assessed value of real and personal property in the State in 1881 was \$93,142,457. Having no port of entry, the commerce of Nebraska is internal, and is considerable.

Education receives liberal attention. There were in the State in 1880 142,348 children of school age, of whom 100,871 were enrolled in the public schools. For the support of these schools the State expended that year \$565,651. It has four colleges and universities.

Nebraska is an Indian word, signifying "Shallow Water," a description appropriately applied to the Missouri and Platte rivers.

COLORADO.

(1876).



THE youngest State in the Union at this moment (August, 1888) is Colorado, being only a dozen years of age, yet it is having a lusty growth, and gives promise of a grand future. It is a Central State of the "New West," lying between latitude 37° and 41° north, and longitude 102° and 109° west. Its area is 103,645 square miles. It is bounded on the north by the State of Nebraska and the Territory of Wyoming, on the east by Kansas, on the south by New Mexico, and on the west by Utah.

One-third of the State, on the east, is a lofty plateau, rising gradually until, at the foot-hills of the Rocky Mountains, the country is from 6000 to 7000 feet above the sea-level. The remainder of the State is occupied by the Rocky Mountains, which rise in their greatest grandeur within the Commonwealth of Colorado. These mountains traverse the State from north to south, nearly through the middle of the Commonwealth. Within these ranges are embraced the North, Middle, South, San Luis, Egira, Estes, Animas, and Huerfan parks, which are immense areas of level lands, surrounded by snow-clad mountains, and each having a climate and a soil peculiar to itself. They are the beds of ancient lakes or inland seas.

Within the limits of Colorado the Rocky Mountains present peaks each over 14,000 feet in height, and some hundreds more rise to an altitude between 11,000 and 14,000 feet. The Great Plains present a smooth, undulating surface, destitute of timber, excepting in the valleys of the water courses and the highlands, which divide the waters of the Platte and Arkansas rivers, which rise near the centre of the State. The cañons, or vast ravines, in Colorado are terrible in their grandeur, some of them being from 2000 to 5000 feet in depth.

It is believed that Francis Vasquez de Coronado, a Spanish adventurer, was the first European who trod the soil of Colorado. He set out in 1540, by command of the Viceroy of Mexico, from the south-east coast of the Gulf

of California, with 350 Spaniards and 800 Indians, to explore the country northward. He followed the coast nearly to the head of the gulf, and then crossed to the Gila River, in (present) Arizona Territory, and followed it to its head-waters. He went over the great hills eastward to the upper waters of the Rio Grande del Norte, which he followed to their sources. Crossing the Rocky Mountains he traversed the great desert north-easterly to the (present) States of Colorado and Kansas, under latitude 40° north. In all that vast region Coronado found little to tempt or reward conquest, only rugged mountains, bleak plains, and a few Indian villages in some of the valleys.

For nearly three centuries after Coronado's expedition, Colorado lay



JOHN L. ROUTT, FIRST GOVERNOR OF COLORADO.

hidden from the outside world. In 1806 President Jefferson sent Lieutenant Z. M. Pike to explore this region. He and his command nearly crossed the territory, and gave the name to Pike's Peak, which they discovered. In 1820 an expedition under Colonel Long visited the region, and in 1842-44 Lieutenant-colonel Frémont crossed Colorado in his famous passage of the Rocky Mountains.

In 1852 gold was discovered near Pike's Peak by a Cherokee cattle-trader. This, and other discoveries of the precious metals, had brought four or five hundred adventurers to Colorado in 1858. The first discovery of a gold-bearing lode was made by John H. Gregory in 1859 in Gilpin county. Immigrants had flocked thither in large numbers, and late in 1859 the miners attempted to form a civil Government. They erected Arapahoe county, and

elected a representative to the Kansas Legislature, who was instructed to urge the separation of the district from Kansas to form a new Territory.

In the autumn of 1859 a Convention of 128 delegates was held at Denver, who decided to memorialize Congress for the creation of a new Territory. Nothing of importance was accomplished until 1861, when the Territory of Colorado was organized. It was formed out of portions of Kansas, Nebraska and Utah. The people of the Territory applied for its admission to the Union as a State. Congress passed bills for that purpose in 1865 and 1867. They were vetoed by President Johnston. Finally, Congress passed an enabling act in March, 1875. The people framed a State Constitution and organized a Government, and on July 4, 1876, Colorado was admitted as an equal and independent State of the Union, with John L. Routt as its first Governor. Since that event Colorado has rapidly increased in population and wealth. It has become a great resort for a special class of invalids.

Colorado is rich in mineral wealth. Gold and silver are found in twenty-one of the thirty-nine counties in the State. The largest industry in the Commonwealth is, at present, the mining, smelting and reducing the precious and other metals.

The entire output of gold, silver, copper and lead in Colorado, from 1859 to 1881, was \$120,600,000, of which \$62,000,000 was gold, \$55,000,000 silver, \$950,000 copper, and \$2,600,000 lead. The coal industry is assuming large proportions, and cattle-herding, sheep-raising, and the wool traffic have become important. In 1880 there were 600 manufacturing establishments in Colorado, the total value of the products of which, that year, was \$14,260,159.

In 1883 there were, in Colorado, 2326 miles of railways in operation, which, with equipments, cost \$89,304,648. The assessed value of real and personal property in the State in 1880 was \$74,471,693.

Colorado has an excellent school system and an ample school fund. It has a State university, a State agricultural college, a college at Colorado Springs, and graded and high schools of a high order.

The population of Colorado in 1884 was over 300,000. Its principal towns in population in 1880 were—Denver, the capital, 35,629, and Leadville 14,820.

Colorado is from a Spanish word, meaning "colored." It is called "The Centennial State," because it was admitted to the Union on the Centennial of the Republic.

The Territories and Districts.

WHILE States have been formed out of several of the Territories treated in the following sketches and have been duly admitted into the Union, their history up to the present writing is mainly that of Territories. For this reason the writer has confined himself to their history as such, merely giving the facts as to their admission. The time has not yet arrived for their historical treatment as States.

The following sketches are given in the chronological order of the organization of the respective Territories and Districts.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.



A DISTRICT ten miles square, lying on each side of the Potomac River, in Maryland and Virginia, was made the seat of the National Government in 1789, and named the *District of Columbia*. It was divided into two counties, separated by the Potomac, and was placed under the jurisdiction of a Circuit Court composed of a Chief Justice and two Assistants. It was under the direct control of Congress. This arrangement was afterwards modified. Instead of providing a homogenous code of laws for the District, those of Maryland and Virginia were continued in force.

The city of Washington, the future capital of the Republic, was laid out on a magnificent scale, with broad avenues, bearing the names of the several States of the Union, and radiating from the hill on which the Capitol was built, as a common centre, with streets intersecting them in such a peculiar way that they have ever been a puzzle to strangers.

The site of the city was a dreary one. The corner-stone of the Capitol was laid in 1793, upon which began the superstructure of the north wing. That portion was completed in the year 1800. The south wing was completed in 1808. The President's house (called the White House) was built on a gentle eminence nearly a mile west of the Capitol. When, in the year 1800, the seat of Government was transferred from Philadelphia to the District of Columbia, only a path leading through an alder swamp on the line of (present) Pennsylvania Avenue, was the way of communication between the President's house and the Capitol.

For a while the Executive and Legislative officers of the Government were compelled to suffer many privations there. The wife of President Adams wrote, in 1800:

"I could content myself almost anywhere for three months, but, surrounded with forests, can you believe that wood is not to be had, because people cannot be found to cut and cart it? * * * Most of the wood had been expended to dry the walls before we came in. * * * We have had recourse to coals, but we cannot get grates made and set."

Oliver Wolcott, member of Congress, wrote to a friend at about the same time, saying—"There is one good tavern about forty rods from the Capitol, and several houses are built or are erecting; but I don't see how the members of Congress can possibly secure lodgings, unless they will consent to live like scholars in a college, crowded ten or twenty in one house. The only resource for such as wish to live comfortably will be found in Georgetown, three miles distant, over as bad a road in winter as the clay grounds near Hartford. * * * There are, in fact, but few houses in any one place, and most of them are small, miserable huts, which present an awful contrast to the public buildings. * * * You may look in every direction over an extent of ground nearly as large as the city of New York without seeing a fence, or any object except brick-kilns and temporary huts for laborers."

The original form of Government for the District continued in force until early in 1871, when Congress passed a bill giving to the District the management of its own affairs. The District was then organized as a Territory, with a Governor appointed by the President and a Legislature chosen by the people. The latter body consisted of a Council and a House of Delegates, the former having eleven members and the latter twenty-two. The Government was directed to confine itself strictly to the affairs of the District. The inhabitants of the District could not vote for President or

Vice-president of the United States. They might send one delegate to Congress, who exercised the rights of other Territorial delegates. The charters of the cities of Washington and Georgetown were repealed, and all laws passed by the District or themselves were subject to the power of Congress, which retained its legislative control of the Territory. The portion of the District of Columbia on the right side of the Potomac was retroceded to Virginia in 1846.

The Government established in 1871 was abolished by Congress in 1874, when the affairs of the District, including those of the city of Washington, were placed under the management of three Commissioners, acting under the direct control of the National Legislature, for the levying and disbursement of taxes, and all public improvements. The citizens have no vote, either in District or National affairs. Justice is administered by a Supreme Court of the District of Columbia, having six Justices, and by a Police Court, presided over by a single Judge.

The original area of the District of Columbia was 100 square miles. It is now sixty-four square miles. Agriculture is the chief pursuit of the inhabitants outside of the cities of Washington and Georgetown. Its manufactures are limited and its commerce is trifling. The assessed value of the real and personal private property of the District in 1880 was about \$100,000,000.

In 1880 there were 43,558 children of school age in the District, of whom 27,299 were enrolled in the public schools. The amount expended that year for free schools was \$527,312. The District has numerous flourishing private schools. It has three universities or colleges. The population of the District in 1880 was 177,624.



INDIAN TERRITORY.



IN 1832 the United States Government set apart a large tract of land west of the Mississippi River (which was a part of the domain of Louisiana purchased in 1803), and devoted it to the purpose of a permanent residence for the remnants of the Indian tribes on the east of the Lower Mississippi River.

On January 30, 1834, Congress enacted that "all that part of the United States west of the Mississippi River, and not in the States of Missouri and Louisiana, or the Territory (now State) of Arkansas, shall be considered the Indian country." It has been reduced in area by the successive formation of Territories and States, until its area is now (1888) 64,690 square miles. It lies between latitude $33^{\circ} 35'$ and 37° north, and longitude 100° and 103° west. It is bounded on the north by Kansas, on the east by Arkansas and Missouri, on the south and west by Texas, from which it is separated by the Red River. The country slopes gently from the foot-hills of the Rocky Mountains on the west towards the Mississippi and the valley of the Lower Red River. It has mountain ranges of moderate elevation. The Ozark or Washita Mountains enter it from Arkansas, in the eastern part of the Territory, and in the north-western part is a portion of the Great American Desert. The general aspect of a greater portion of the Territory is that of an undulating plain. It is drained by the Arkansas and Red Rivers and their affluents.

The tribes from east of the Mississippi, which first settled there, were the Creeks, Choctaws, Chickasaws, and Cherokees, who went thither from 1833 to 1838; also some Seminoles and fragments of other tribes a little later. The Territory includes over thirty distinct Indian nations or tribes, on seventeen reservations and unassigned lands. In 1880 there were eleven Indian agencies in the Territory, who represented the United States, but each tribe has its own internal government.

The National Government exercises no authority over the Indians excepting for the punishment of certain crimes committed by them against the

white people. For this purpose the Indian Territory was annexed to the judicial districts of the States of Missouri and Arkansas. The Indians are allowed to live under their own laws and follow their own customs and modes of life. Each tribe has its own lands assigned and secured to it by the United States. Efforts have been made to organize the Territory under a Constitution which should place the different tribes in corresponding relations to the General Government held by the States of the Union.

During the late Civil War emissaries of the Confederate leaders went among the more intelligent of the Indian tribes to seduce them from their allegiance to the United States, and succeeded in winning quite a large number. The more enlightened Cherokees and Creeks were not so easily moved at first. The venerable John Ross, who for almost forty years had been the principal chief of the Cherokees, took a decided stand against these corrupting emissaries, and urged his people to be faithful to their treaty obligations to the United States.

Ross and his loyal adherents were overborne by the tide of rebellion. The forts on the frontier of Texas, which had been used for their defense, had been abandoned by United States troops, also those on the Arkansas frontier. Thus unsupported, the Cherokees were driven into the attitude of rebellion, and suffered dreadfully afterwards. Ross was compelled to fly to the North to escape personal violence.

It is the policy of the United States Government to settle the various Indian tribes in that region on separate reservations, as far as possible, where they may be free from the encroachments of the white people; but large numbers of "pale-faces" have gone into the Territory and settled there. It seems destined to be, ere long, overwhelmed by the tide of civilization by which it is surrounded. The Indians themselves are making rapid advances in the arts and refinements of civilized life. They are following the pursuits of agriculturists and cattle-raising with success.

In 1880 industry in the Indian Territory produced 2,015,000 bushels of Indian corn; 565,400 bushels of wheat; 165,500 tons of hay, and quite a large crop of barley and cotton. Some of the people were engaged in the lumber business. They also had much live stock. At one time the whole people of the Territory had over 200,000 horses, 320,000 horned cattle, 22,500 sheep, and 400,000 swine. They also made hunting a profitable pursuit. Until within a comparatively few years, vast herds of buffalo and wild horses roamed over its prairies, and wild deer were abundant.

The five leading nations or tribes are the Cherokees, Creeks, Choctaws, Chickasaws and Seminoles. To these the schools in the Territory are confined. They are giving them vigorous support. In 1880 they expended for that purpose the sum of \$186,359. At that time there were 11,444 children of school age in the Territory, of whom over 6000 were enrolled in the schools. Not less than 30,000 of the people of the Territory can read, and three newspapers are conducted by the Indians, one in English, one in English and Cherokee, and one in English and Choctaw.

Those more enlightened tribes lost a vast amount of property during the Civil War from Confederate raids and other causes, but have regained it, and their possessions are now estimated at the value of over \$20,000,000. The population of the Territory in 1880 was about 80,000. A larger portion of them are sufficiently civilized to become citizens. Among the five principal tribes there are very few white people.



NEW MEXICO.



WHEN the Spaniards discovered the region of New Mexico it was inhabited by an industrious, semi-barbarous people, probably of the Toltec or Aztec races, whom Cortez found in Old Mexico. They had walled towns, and stone dwellings several stories in height. They made textile fabrics in wool and cotton, and gathered large crops from the well-irrigated soil.

New Mexico is a South-western Territory of the Union, lying between latitude $31^{\circ} 20'$ and 37° north, and longitude $103^{\circ} 2'$ and $109^{\circ} 2'$ west. On the north it is bounded by Colorado, on the east by Texas and the Indian Territory, on the south by Texas and Mexico, and on the west by Arizona. It embraces an area of 122,580 square miles.

This Territory is a part of a lofty table-land broken by mountain ranges, which form the foundations of the Rocky Mountains and Sierra Nevada ranges. This table-land slopes southward to the barren region known as the "Staked Plains." The Sierra Madre passes through its central portion. The best habitable part of the Territory is the valley of the Rio Grande, where the climate is temperate and salubrious. Only a small portion of the Territory is wooded.

Spanish adventurers, among them Coronado (see *Colorado*), visited this region so early as 1537-40. In 1580-81 Augustin Ruyz, a Franciscan friar, inflamed with missionary zeal, with three companions, penetrated to the Rio Grande; and soon afterwards he was followed by Antonio Espejo, a Spaniard, with some soldiers, who built forts and took possession of the whole country in the name of the Spanish monarch, and called it "New Mexico." Santa Fé, its present capital, was built soon afterwards, and is, next to St. Augustine, the oldest borough in the United States.

The Spanish missions readily made converts of the *pueblo* or village Indians. Many successful stations were planted, but the enslavement of the natives by the Spaniards caused much discontent, and consequent insecurity

for the white people there. Finally, in 1680, the Indians drove the white people out, and recovered the country from the Spaniards as far south as El Paso del Norte. The Spaniards regained possession in 1698, and the province remained a part of Mexico until 1846.

General S. W. Kearney, in command of the Army of the West in the war with Mexico, in 1846, was ordered to conquer New Mexico and California. He left Fort Leavenworth, on the Missouri River, in Kansas, in June, with 1600 men, and arrived at Santa Fé, after a march of 900 miles, on the 18th of August. He had traversed great plains and rugged mountains without opposition. As he approached the New Mexican capital, the Governor and 4000 soldiers fled, leaving the 6000 inhabitants of the city to quietly



JAMES S. CALHOUN, FIRST GOVERNOR OF NEW MEXICO.

submit to the invaders. Kearney then took formal possession of the State, appointed a provisional Governor, and pushed on towards California. (See *California*.) New Mexico was ceded to the United States by the treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo in February, 1848.

An attempt was made in 1861 to attach New Mexico to the Southern Confederacy by the method employed by Twiggs in Texas. (See *Texas*.) Disloyal officers were sent thither by Floyd, the Secretary of War, a year before the Civil War broke out, to corrupt the patriotism of the soldiers. They failed to corrupt a single one of the twelve hundred men under them. These officers were compelled to flee to Texas from the wrath of their soldiers when their scheme became apparent. They had led the unsuspecting troops to Fort Fillmore, on the Texas border. The commander of that post co-oper-

ated with those leaders, and the loyal soldiers were betrayed into the power of the Texan insurgents.

The Secessionists now felt assured of success in New Mexico, when General Canby arrived and raised the standard of the Union. Around it the loyal people of the Territory gathered. With regular troops, New Mexican levies, and volunteers, he saved the Territory from the grasp of the insurgents.

New Mexico was erected into a Territory of the United States in September, 1850, when a Territorial Government was formed and James S. Calhoun was chosen the first Governor. The region south of the Gila was obtained by purchase in 1853, and was added to New Mexico in 1854. It then contained the whole of Arizona and a portion of Colorado and Nevada. These were afterwards set off from it. The Territory has long been qualified to enter the Union as a State, and has asked for that privilege.

The agricultural productions of New Mexico are not abundant. In 1880 it produced 706,641 bushels of wheat, 633,786 bushels of Indian corn, 156,527 bushels of oats, and a small amount of rye and barley. It had, of farm animals, 14,547 horses, 166,701 cattle, 2,088,831 sheep, and 7857 swine. The wool-clip that year was 4,019,188 pounds. Some tobacco was raised.

The manufactures of New Mexico are comparatively insignificant. In 1882 there were 975 miles of railway in operation in the Territory, which cost \$28,369,300.

The assessed valuation of real and personal property in the Territory in 1881 was \$19,523,624. There were about 30,000 children of school age, but only 4755 were enrolled in public schools. The sum of \$28,973 was expended for the support of these schools that year.

The precious metals are abundant in New Mexico. Its mineral wealth is not yet developed. Its future prosperity will probably depend very largely upon its mines.



UTAH.



THE Territory of Utah was originally inhabited by a tribe of Ute or Utah Indians, from whom its name is derived. It lies mostly in the Great Wasatch Basin, between the Rocky Mountains and the Sierra Nevada range, and comprises an area of 84,970 square miles. It lies between latitude 37° and 42° north, and longitude 109° and 114° west. The population of the Territory, in 1880, was 144,000, of whom (including 500 Chinese and 800 Indians) 1540 were colored. On the north of Utah lie the Territories of Idaho and Wyoming, on the north-east is Wyoming, east is Colorado, south is Arizona, and west is Nevada.

Utah is traversed by the great Wasatch range of mountains, which forms the east wall of the Great Basin. East of that range is a plateau fifty miles wide, sloping to an elevated valley, a part of which is very fertile. The western part of the Territory is also elevated. In the north-east is a barren, alkaline desert.

The Wasatch Mountains present snowy peaks 11,000 to 12,000 feet above the sea-level. In the Great Wasatch Basin are many lakes, into which rivers empty. Among these is the Great Salt Lake, over 100 miles in length and nearly fifty in width. The rivers have cut cañons or ravines, 2000 to 5000 feet in depth. The Territory may be designated as generally an elevated, mountainous, and largely barren region. The pure water, *Utah Lake*, the source of the Jordan, is 4475 feet above the sea.

The settlement of Utah is one of the marvels of our National history. It was a part of Upper California, ceded to the United States by Mexico in 1848. The Mormons, driven from Missouri and Illinois, penetrated the region in the summer of 1847. The story of the exodus reads like a wild romance.

The people of Illinois, in whose State, at Nauvoo, the Mormons had settled and begun the erection of a temple, took measures to drive them from the Commonwealth. In February, 1844, 1600 men, women and children crossed the Mississippi River on the ice, and, travelling with ox-teams and

on foot, penetrated the then Indian country, and rested at Council Bluffs. Other bands followed, and in September the last lingering Mormons at Nauvoo were driven across the great river by the bayonets of soldiers—homeless exiles, led by a shrewd “prophet” named Brigham Young. To the Mormons his voice was the voice of God. They formed “Tabernacle Camps” in the wilderness, and while some tarried to cultivate the soil and aid other wanderers who might follow, the great host moved on.

That march was a wonderful sight to behold. They made short journeys by day, and encamped in military order every night. Every ten wagons were under the command of a captain, who was obedient to the command of a



BRIGHAM YOUNG, FIRST GOVERNOR OF UTAH.

centurion. Strict discipline everywhere prevailed. They had singing and dancing. Many were swept away by miasmatic fevers. When winter fell upon them they suffered greatly. They made caves in the sand-hills for dwellings, and in the spring of 1847 they marked out the site of a city on the Missouri, where the Omahas dwelt. They named it “Kane City,” in compliment to a brother of the Arctic explorer, who gave them much aid in the exodus. They sent missionaries even to the Sandwich Islands. Others went deeper into the wilderness to spy out a “promised land” for an “everlasting habitation.”

These persons chose the Great Salt Lake region, enclosed by lofty mountains, fertile, salubrious and isolated. Thither a chosen band of 143 men, with seventy wagons drawn by horses, accompanied by their wives and chil-

dren and members of the High Council, proceeded to take possession of the country in the summer of 1847. On the evening of July 20 their eyes beheld, from the summits of the Wasatch Mountains, the placid Salt Lake glittering in the beams of the setting sun. It was a scene of wondrous interest to them—it was the “Land of Promise,” where they expected to be forever freed from the “Gentiles” and the curse of “Gentile” government. They chose the site for a city near the Lake, on a gentle slope on the banks of a stream which they called Jordan. Fields were ploughed and sown in the spring of 1848. The “saints” gathered there. They organized civil government and called the region the State of Deseret—the Land of the Honey-bees.

The most prominent feature in the religious and social system of the Mormons is polygamy, which they persistently adhere to. Against this immoral system the people of the rest of the Union have ever protested. Within a few years Congress has passed laws for its suppression. On account of that system Utah has been denied admission into the family of States of the Republic. The city (Salt Lake), laid out four miles square by the pioneers in 1847, contained in 1885, or less than forty years afterwards, 25,000 inhabitants, where they have their great temple, and is the metropolis of the hierarchy as well as of the Territory. The latter was created in 1850, and Brigham Young was appointed the first Governor.

Incensed because Congress persistently refused to admit their Territory into the Union of States, the Mormons, from time to time, defied the power of the National Government, and committed many outrages. In 1858 United States troops were sent into the Territory to bring them into submission. It was done, and since then they have been more obedient to the laws of the Republic.

The agricultural products of Utah are comparatively limited in amount, but there appears to be a general increase in its manufactures. In 1880 there were 640 manufacturing establishments in the Territory, the total value of the products of which was \$4,324,992. Salt manufacturing is among the prominent industries. There were nearly 1000 miles of railway in the Territory in 1885, which cost nearly \$22,000,000.

Utah has no Territorial debt. The assessed value of property in the Territory, real and personal, in 1844, was \$38,452,987. There were 40,672 children of school age in the Territory, of whom 29,792 were enrolled in public schools. In 1880 the Territory expended \$170,887 for public instruction.

WASHINGTON.



THE Territory of Washington lies between $45^{\circ} 32'$ and 49° north latitude, and 117° and $124^{\circ} 28'$ west longitude. It embraces an area of 69,180 square miles. Its population numbered, in 1885, including 3186 Chinese and 4400 Indians 130,465. On the north and north-west it is bounded by British Columbia, on the east by Idaho Territory, on the south by Oregon, from which the Columbia River separates it along a greater portion of the boundary line, and west by the Pacific Ocean.

The Cascade Mountains and the Columbia River (the latter entering the Territory on the north-east) divide the domain into Western Washington, west of the Cascade Mountains; Middle Washington, between the Cascade Mountains and the Columbia River; and Eastern Washington, east of the Columbia River. The western half and the south-eastern portion of the Territory are mountainous. The Cascade range extends entirely across the Territory from north to south. In this range are the lofty peaks of Mount Rainer, 12,300 feet in altitude; Mount St. Helen and Mount Adams, each about 9500 feet; and Mount Baker, 10,700 feet above the sea, all covered with perpetual snow. In the western part of the Territory the climate is mild, there being very little winter weather there. Cattle pasture the year round. There is a dry and a rainy season, each of about six months' duration. The river valleys are very fertile.

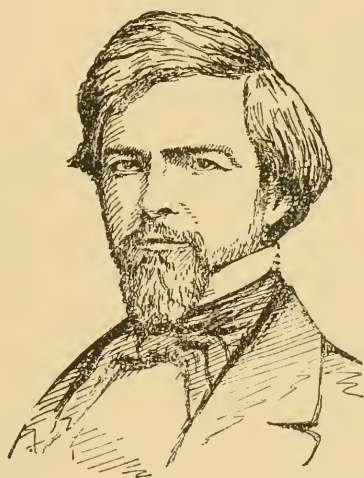
The country about Puget's Sound was for centuries a favorite resort of the Indian tribes of the Pacific coast. The Strait of San Juan de Fuca was first entered in 1592 by a German navigator of that name employed in the Spanish naval service. Captain Gray, in command of the ship *Columbia*, of Boston, discovered Gray's Harbor, in south-western Washington, at the mouth of the Columbia River, in 1792 (see *Oregon*); and Lewis and Clarke reached that point in their explorations in 1805.

The Hudson's Bay Fur Company, grasping at a monopoly of trade with the natives, attempted to take possession of the Territory from 1828 to 1841.

The United States held a double title to the region watered by the Columbia River and its tributaries—namely, from the Spanish, and by the discovery of Captain Gray.

In 1845 a few American families, who had crossed the Great Plains and the mountain ranges, formed the first permanent settlement in the Territory. Other settlers followed, and in March, 1853, Congress, by act, created the Territory of Washington and appointed Isaac I. Stevens the first Governor.

The act of Congress, February 14, 1859, for the admission of Oregon into the Union as a State, added to the Washington Territory the region between the eastern boundary of that State and the Rocky Mountains, embracing the



ISAAC I. STEVENS, FIRST GOVERNOR OF WASHINGTON TERRITORY.

present Territory of Idaho and parts of Montana and Wyoming. The islands in Washington Sound, (formerly Gulf of Georgia) were claimed as a part of the British possessions. After long disputes the question of eminent domain was referred to the Emperor of Germany, who, in 1872, decided that they belonged to the United States. In 1873 these islands were formed into the county of San Juan. The capital of the Territory is Olympia, situated at the southern projection of Puget's Sound. It was first settled in 1846, and was incorporated and made the capital in 1859.

Wheat and oats are the principal cereal crops of Washington. In 1884 the Territory produced 7,412,000 bushels of wheat, over 3,000,000 bushels of oats, and 800,000 bushels of barley. The climate appears to be too cold for

the successful cultivation of Indian corn. Sheep-raising is a growing industry. The wool crop in 1884 was 8,000,000 pounds.

Manufacturing and mining are beginning to be carried on quite extensively in Washington Territory. Its manufactured products in 1885 were valued at \$5,000,000. The mineral resources of the Territory have not been developed. They are evidently very extensive. Vast beds of coal have been found there; also, the precious metals in various places.

The lumber business is a great and growing industry. The forests of the Territory seem to be almost inexhaustible. Its salmon fisheries are assuming large proportions. The estimated value of salmon packed in 1884 was over \$1,000,000.

The assessed value of the real and personal property of the Territory in 1885 was \$50,215,581. No Territorial debt. The amount of money expended for public instruction in 1884 was \$287,500. The public-school system is said to be the best of any of the Territories. It established a Territorial University at Seattle in 1862, and there are several high schools at various places.

This Territory was created a State on February 22d, 1889.



DAKOTA.



DAKOTA Territory lies between latitude $42^{\circ} 30'$ and 49° north, and longitude $96^{\circ} 20'$ and 104° west. It is bounded on the north by the Dominion of Canada; on the east by Minnesota, from which it is separated by the Mississippi River; on the south by Nebraska, and on the west by Wyoming and Montana Territories. It embraces an area of 149,100 square miles. From north to south it is 450 miles, and from east to west 350 miles. The population of Dakota in 1885 was 416,000, and was rapidly increasing. Of that number over 2000 were colored, including 1400 Indians and 238 Chinese. It also contained 27,108 tribal Indians.

A greater portion of Dakota belongs to the region known as the Great Plains, east of the Rocky Mountains. It occupies the most elevated section of country between the Arctic Ocean and the Gulf of Mexico, forming to a great extent the water-shed of the two great basins of North America—those of the Missouri and the Mississippi rivers—and the tributaries of Hudson's Bay. This water-shed is nearly 1600 feet above the sea. The Missouri River traverses the Territory from north-west to south-east. The country east and north of this river is a beautiful, rich and undulating prairie, free from marshes, swamps or sloughs, dotted with numerous lakes, and traversed by many streams—tributaries of the Missouri.

When the French first visited this region (a part of the old Louisiana domain), in the 17th century, they found it inhabited by one of the most powerful barbarian nations on the Continent. They were the Sioux or Dakotas, from whom the Territory derives its name. They occupied the vast wilderness extending from the Arkansas River in the south to Lake Winnepeg in the north, and westward to the slopes of the Rocky Mountains. In wars with the French the northern Dakotas were pushed down the Mississippi, and, driving off the occupants of the buffalo plains, took possession. Others remained on the shores of Lake St. Peter.

In 1837 the Dakotas ceded to the United States their lands east of the Mississippi River, and in 1851 they ceded 35,000,000 acres west of that river for \$3,000,000. The violations of treaties with the barbarians by the United States Government or its agents, exasperated the Dakotas or Sioux, and kept them in a state of chronic hostility, which finally developed into actual war.

One of these treaties made the Black Hills of Dakota and Wyoming a reservation for the Indians, but, gold having been discovered there, efforts were made to induce the "wards of the nation" to go to the Indian Territory. They refused. Late in 1874 a bill was introduced into Congress which pro-



WILLIAM JAYNE, FIRST GOVERNOR OF DAKOTA.

vided for the extinguishment of the Indian title to so much of the Black Hills as lay within the Territory of Dakota.

In the spring of 1874, Government geologists were sent to the Black Hills to survey that region. They were escorted by troops. The Indians, rightly suspecting more perfidy, prepared for war. To suppress these preparations a strong military force was sent into Montana Territory and adjoining regions in 1876. A campaign against the barbarians was arranged. Troops were to move simultaneously in three divisions—one from the Department of the Platte, another from the Department of Dakota, and a third from the Territory of Montana. The whole expedition was under the command of General Alfred H. Terry.

Learning that the hostile Indians were concentrated in large numbers near a tributary of the Yellowstone River, early in June, the three armies proceeded

to close upon them. General George A. Custer's command arrived first, and discovered an immense Indian camp on a plain. He had been instructed to await the arrival of other troops to co-operate before making an attack; but Custer, inferring that the Indians were moving off, directed one of his Colonels, Reno, to attack them at one point with seven companies of cavalry, whilst he dashed off with about 300 mounted men to attack at another point. A terrible struggle ensued (June 25, 1876) with a body of Indians, in number about five to one of the white men. They were commanded by an educated, bold and skillful chief named Sitting Bull. Custer, and almost his entire command, were slain in the encounter.

The Government now sent a large military force into the region of the Black Hills, for the purpose of utterly crushing the power of the Dakotas. Sitting Bull and his followers, anticipating severe chastisement, at length withdrew into the British possessions. The fugitive Indians have mostly returned to the old hunting grounds, but the powerful nation of Dakotas have forever lost their puissance.

The first permanent settlements of white people in Dakota were made in 1859, in what are now Clay, Union, and Yankton counties, in the extreme South-eastern part of the Territory. That Territory was organized in March, 1861, when it comprised the Territories of Montana and Wyoming. William Jayne was appointed the first Governor. Yankton was made its capital. There the first Territorial Legislature met in March, 1862. The next year a part of the Territory was included in Idaho. In 1868 a large portion of Dakota was taken to form the Wyoming Territory. Emigration to this inchoate State was limited until 1866. After the pacification of the Indians, ten years later, a larger and a continuous stream of emigrants has flowed into the Territory. The seat of Government was removed to Bismarck, on the left bank of the Missouri, at the centre of the Territory, in 1883.

Efforts have been made to have Dakota admitted into the Union as a State, either in whole or in part. The latest proposition made was to divide the Territory and make two States.

The agricultural resources of Dakota are immense. Nearly the whole Territory is very fertile. The wheat crops are marvellous, especially in Northern Dakota. There are farms in that region of from 50,000 to 75,000 acres, which yield from twenty-five to thirty bushels of wheat to the acre. Southern Dakota is also an excellent grain region, while Central Dakota is generally better adapted to grazing.

Flour and lumber have been thus far (1888) the principal manufacturing industries of Dakota. Mining, except for coal, is confined to the Black Hills. So early as 1881 there were more than 1800 miles of railway in Dakota, including three parallel lines which cross the Territory. The assessed valuation of the real and personal property of the Territory, in 1885, was \$106,000,000. Its commerce is wholly internal.

The facilities for public instruction have not quite kept pace with the increase in population. In 1884 there were over 70,000 children of school age in the Territory, and that year \$1,748,562 were spent in the support of public schools. There are several colleges and academies, and seminaries for young women.

This Territory was divided and erected into two States—North Dakota and South Dakota—on February 22d, 1889.



ARIZONA.



ARIZONA is in the extreme south-western portion of the Republic, lying on the borders of Mexico. It is between latitude $31^{\circ} 20'$ and 37° north, and longitude 109° and $114^{\circ} 35'$ west. Nevada and Utah are its nearest neighbors on the north, New Mexico on the east, Mexico on the south, and California and Nevada on the west.

Its area embraces 113,020 square miles. Its population in 1880 was 40,440, of whom 3493 were Indians and 1630 Chinese. There were 21,000 tribal Indians. Among the latter are the Apaches, the most troublesome, who numbered about 5000. The Moquis, numbering about 1800, are probably descendants of the ancient Aztec population. They are more peaceable and intelligent than any other of the barbarians in the Territory.

The surface of Arizona is generally elevated and mountainous, numerous ranges traversing it from the north-west to the south-east. It is composed of wide plateaus, gradually sloping from an elevation of 7000 feet above the sea, in the north, to not more than 100 feet in the south. Among the mountains are peaks towering to the height of 12,000 to 14,000 feet. These mountain ranges are traversed by rivers which have cut cañons from 1000 to 6000 feet in depth. The whole Territory is drained by the Columbia River and its affluents. The whole course of that river through the Territory is through the Grand Cañon, which is from 400 to 5000 feet below the plateau. It falls in the course of 400 miles, over 3000 feet.

So early as 1526 Don José de Vasconcellos, a follower of Cortez, crossed the centre of this Territory toward the Great Cañon. He and subsequent Spanish explorers found on the banks of the rivers ruins of cities, deserted centuries before apparently. The builders were undoubtedly Aztecs or Toltecs, who were driven away by northern invaders. Evidences of quite a high degree of civilization appeared everywhere.

Spanish missionaries made settlements in Arizona as early as 1687. They

were chiefly on the Lower Colorado and Gila rivers. The history of their missions is similar to those in Nevada and California.

Arizona formed a part of Mexico until its purchase by the United States in 1850. It was created a Territory by act of Congress February 24, 1863, when John A. Gurley was appointed its first Governor. In that act its area was described as comprising "all of the United States lands west of longitude 109° to the California line." Since then the north-west corner has been ceded to Nevada.

One of the descendants of the Zuni, or most ancient race who inhabited Arizona, gave to a pioneer the following account of their origin, as preserved in their traditions:

"In the beginning a race of men sprang out of the Earth, as plants arise and come forth in the spring. This race increased until it spread over the whole earth, and, after continuing for countless ages, passed away.

"The Earth then remained without people a great length of time, until, ally, the Sun had compassion on the Earth, and sent a celestial maiden to re-people the globe. The young goddess was called Arizonia, the name signifying "Maiden Queen." Arizonia dwelt upon the earth in lonely solitude a great length of time, until, at a certain time, basking in the Sun, a drop of dew fell from Heaven and rested upon her. In due time Arizonia blessed the world with twins, a son and daughter, and these became the father and mother of the Zuni Indians, and from this tribe came all other races of men—the Zunis being the only pure, original stock—the Children of the Sun."

Arizona abounds in precious metals, especially silver. Mining is its most important industry. The mines of both gold and silver are very numerous. The scarcity of wood and water makes mining expensive. Agricultural labors are, as a rule, not very productive. The irrigable lands, properly managed, will produce very large crops of cereals and roots. Semi-tropical fruits are very plentiful. Many cattle are raised in the Territory.

There is, unfortunately, little manufacturing carried on in the Territory. The assessed value of the real and personal property there in 1880 was \$9,-270,214. It had at that time 4212 pupils in its public schools, and spent that year for the support of public instruction \$61,172. To these schools the Moquis contribute some children. They live in villages, and have some manufactures

IDAHO.



THE Territory of Idaho is one of the northern provinces of the Republic on the Pacific slope. It is irregular in shape. For a short distance, on the north, it is bounded by British Columbia, east by Montana and Wyoming, south by Utah and Nevada, and west by the State of Oregon and Washington Territory. It contains an area of 84,800 square miles. Its population in 1885 was about 75,000. Its capital is Boisé City, the most populous town in the Territory, the inhabitants of which, in 1880, numbered about 2000.

Idaho is a mountainous country. The Rocky Mountains extend for about 250 miles along its eastern and north-eastern boundaries. Within the bounds of the Territory is Frémont's Peak, the highest of the Rocky Mountain ranges in the United States. On Florence Mountain, 2000 feet below its summit, is the town of Florence. It is over 11,000 feet above the sea, and is believed to be the highest town in the United States. With the exception of Bear River, in the extreme south-eastern region, the entire drainage of Idaho is into the Columbia River. The Bear River is a tributary to the great Salt Lake in Utah. A small portion of the Yellowstone Park occupies a little of south-eastern Idaho. The whole of that region is volcanic.

It is believed that the only white men who trod the soil of Idaho previous to the year 1850, with the exception of some missionaries in 1842, and the bold explorers with Lewis and Clarke (see *Oregon*) early in the century, were trappers and miners. The latter, prospecting for the precious metals, discovered some in 1852 in the extreme northern part of the Territory. At first not many miners and settlers were attracted to that region; but accounts of the evident mineral wealth of the country, which reached the settlers in California and Oregon in 1860, drew many adventurers thither. Very soon there was a population in Idaho of 20,000, and in the spring of 1863 Congress erected the Territory of Idaho. William H. Wallace was appointed its first Governor. Previous to that act it had formed a part of

Oregon, and embraced the Territories of Montana, Wyoming, Utah, Nebraska and Western Dakota. In 1864 Montana was set off from it.

The mineral wealth of Idaho is believed to be enormous. Mines of gold and silver are found at the sources of all the rivers, and in every county in the Territory. Lead also is found, and there are valuable deposits of bituminous coal.

Wheat and oats are the leading agricultural products of Idaho. Farm animals and sheep are found there in considerable numbers. Mining is the leading industry.

This Territory ranks fifth among the States and Territories in the order of production of the precious metals. Up to 1885 it had furnished the United States Mint with gold and silver valued at nearly \$30,000,000.

The manufactures of Idaho are inconsiderable. In 1881 there were about 250 miles of railway in the Territory; now the Northern Pacific Railway runs through its northern part, and another railway passes through its southern part.

The assessed value of the taxable property in the Territory in 1880 was \$6,440,876. It has a good public-school system, and the schools are liberally supported.

Idaho is an Indian word. Its correct pronunciation is Id-ah'-o.

Idaho was admitted as a State July 3d, 1890.



MONTANA.



MONTANA Territory is one of the extreme northern Territories of the Republic, lying between latitude $44^{\circ} 6'$ and 49° north, and longitude 104° and 116° west. Its area is 14,608 square miles. Its northern boundary is the Dominion of Canada; on the east is the Territory of Dakota; on the south is Wyoming and Idaho, and on

the west is also Idaho.

The general surface of Montana is mountainous, with some fine and fertile valleys. It is abundantly timbered with pine, spruce and other trees. The main range of the Rocky Mountains, with detached spurs, crosses the Territory. In the eastern part is a long valley of the Yellowstone River, with mountain walls on each side, said to be fertile. The Missouri River rises near the south-western corner of the Territory, and makes a circuitous course through the whole extent of the province, and on its eastern border it enters the Territory of Dakota. Some portions of the Territory present undulating prairies, dotted with clumps of timber. The climate is salubrious and the water pure.

There were a few missionaries, hunters and trappers in the Territory several years before its organization, but there were no really permanent settlements established before the discovery of the precious metals there, in 1861, when emigrants flocked thither in large numbers, some from the east, but a greater portion from the region of the Pacific coast. Gold, silver, copper, iron and lead are found in all parts of the mountain districts. A larger portion of the vast mineral wealth of the Territory undoubtedly remains to be developed.

By act of Congress, in May, 1864, the Territory of Montana was created, and Virginia City was made its capital. That city is on the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains, 6000 feet above the sea. Sidney Egerton was appointed the first Governor of this Territory. It was settled only the year before, in the vicinity of a rich gold mine which had just been drained, and

from which has since been taken gold valued at more than \$40,000,000. It remained the capital until January, 1875, when the seat of Government was transferred to Helena, fifteen miles east of the summit of the Rocky Mountains. This city had a population, in 1885, estimated at 8000. It is in the midst of rich agricultural valleys and productive mines of precious metals.

The principal agricultural productions of Montana are wheat and oats. In 1880 it produced 469,648 bushels of wheat and 900,915 bushels of oats, while of Indian corn only 5649 bushels were raised. Cattle and sheep-raising is an active industry in the Territory. In 1880 there were 172,387 cattle, 184,277



SIDNEY EDGERTON, FIRST GOVERNOR OF MONTANA.

sheep, and 10,278 swine. The wool-clip that year yielded 1,000,000 pounds. All of these products have been largely increased since, especially the area of wheat culture.

Manufactures are becoming important in the Territory. The value of the aggregate products in 1880 was about \$2,000,000. The North Pacific Railway runs through the Territory.

The assessed value of taxable property in 1880 was \$18,609,802. Liberal provision is made for public instruction.

Montana derives its name from the mountainous character of the Territory.

This Territory was created a State on February 22d, 1889.

WYOMING.



THE latest organised Territory of the United States is Wyoming, one of the Rocky Mountain provinces. It lies between latitude 41° and 45° north, and longitude 104° and 111° west. It embraces an area of 97,890 square miles, and a population in 1880 of 20,789, of whom 1352 were colored, including 914 Chinese and 140 Indians. The Territory is bounded on the north by Montana, east by Dakota and Nebraska, south by Colorado and Utah, and west by Utah, Idaho and Montana.

A larger part of the Territory is mountainous. The main ranges of the Rocky Mountains, entering it at the north-west, cross the Territory in a south-easterly direction, into Colorado. The Snow Mountain range has the Valley of the Yellowstone on the west and that of the Big Horn on the east. The Black Hills, which constitute the eastern foot-hills of the Rocky Mountains, occupy the eastern portion of the Territory and extend into Dakota. The highest mountain top in the Territory is Frémont's peak, on the border of Montana. Around this peak are the sources of some of the principal affluents of the Columbia and Colorado rivers. The whole of Wyoming has an elevation of from 3000 to 8000 feet above the sea. The Laramie Plain, 5000 to 6000 feet above the ocean, affords a most excellent grazing region of vast extent.

The Yellowstone National Park is almost wholly within the Territory of Wyoming. It is one of the most remarkable regions on the globe for its wonderful curiosities of nature. It is only a very few years since this marvellous "wonder-land" was made positively known to the civilized world. There have been for three-fourths of a century vague rumors of hot springs, mud springs, volcanoes, etc., in the heart of the continent, but they were regarded as wild tales of excited or untrustworthy men.

Probably the first white man who visited this region was John Colter, a member of the expedition of Lewis and Clarke (see *Oregon*). He returned to it after his discharge from service, and his narrative of its volcanic wonders

caused it to be spoken of in derision as "Colter's Hell." Two other adventurers in that region (James Bridges and Robert Meldrum) described the geysers and hot springs in 1844, but their stories were regarded as pure romances. It was described in print in 1847, and again in 1870. The latter account carried with it such an aspect of truthfulness that an expedition was organized the same year to explore the region. It was conducted by General Washburne, who had been appointed Surveyor-General of Wyoming Territory. The truth of the wild tales was officially attested, and excited great interest in both hemispheres.

In 1871 a well-organized scientific corps, under Professor Hayden, made



JOHN A. CAMPBELL, FIRST GOVERNOR OF WYOMING TERRITORY.

a careful exploration of this remarkable region. In February, 1872, Congress passed an act reserving 3312 square miles, chiefly in the north-western corner of Wyoming, withdrawing it from "settlement, occupancy or sale," under the laws of the United States, dedicating and setting it apart as a public park and pleasure-ground for the benefit and enjoyment of the people. Its general elevation averages about 8000 feet. The region is so elevated that it can scarcely ever be available for agricultural purposes.

Probably the oldest white settlement in Wyoming is that at Fort Laramie, where a fur trading-post was established in 1834. It was purchased by the United States in 1849, and there Fort Laramie was built and has since been garrisoned. The Territory was organised by Congress on July 25, 1868, out of portions of Dakota, Idaho and Utah, the larger portion

consisting of Western Dakota. John A. Campbell was appointed the first Governor. The form of Government is similar to that of other Territories. Women possess the right of suffrage, and exercise it; they sit also on juries, and hold elective offices.

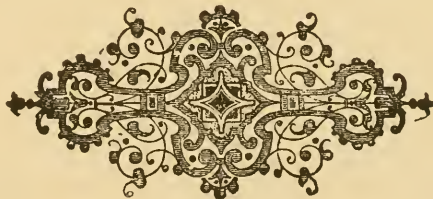
There have been no severe contests with Indians in Wyoming, except in 1876, when the Dakotas of the Black Hills region almost totally destroyed the command of General Custer near the waters of Big Horn River. (See *Dakota*.)

About 5,000,000 of the 62,000,000 acres of Wyoming are arable land, and about 35,000,000 acres are available for grazing. Both gold and silver abound in the Territory, and there are extensive coal-fields near the line of the Union Pacific Railway. Wheat and oats are the chief cereal productions. Sheep-raising is becoming a prominent industry, and cattle-raising much more prominent. So early as the census of 1880 there were 278,000 cattle in the Territory, 12,000 horses, and more than 140,000 sheep.

Manufactures are yet (1888) somewhat limited. The Union Pacific Railway passes through Wyoming, of which 464 miles are in the Territory. The assessed value of real and personal property in 1885 was \$30,717,250. There is an efficient system of public instruction in the Territory.

Cheyenne City is the capital of Wyoming. It had a population in 1880 of 3456. It is at an elevation of over 6000 feet above the sea. Its name is derived from that of a tribe of Indians which inhabited that region.

This Territory was admitted as a State July 3d, 1890.



ALASKA.

ISOLATED from the rest of the territory of the United States, and in the extreme north-western portion of North America, is a vast region possessed by the Great Republic of the West, and known as Alaska. It lies north of the parallel of $50^{\circ} 40'$ north latitude, and west of the meridian of 140° west longitude. It includes many littoral islands, and the group known as the Aleutian Islands. Its area is estimated at 577,390 square miles. Its shore line, including bays and rivers, is estimated at 25,000 miles.

The mountains of Alaska are a continuation of the Coast, Cascade, and Rocky Mountains (see *California* and *Oregon*), with outlying spurs. Some of the mountain peaks are very elevated. That of Mount St. Elias is estimated at 18,000 to 19,500 feet. Mount Fairweather is almost as high. There are several active volcanoes, some of them attaining an altitude of 10,000 feet. The Aleutian Archipelago, extending towards Asia from the shores of Alaska, are the summits of a mountain range. They form a curve, southward, westward and northward, from the extremity of the great peninsula to Behring's Island, a distance of 1075 miles. They constitute a most wonderful range of volcanic islands. The six larger ones are inhabited.

The principal river in the District is the Yukon. It is 2000 miles in length, and is navigable for nearly 1500 miles. The climate is comparatively mild, the mean temperature being but a little lower than that in Maine and New Brunswick.

Alaska was formerly known as "Russian America," the Muscovites having acquired the right of possession by its discovery, in 1741, by Vitus Behring, a Danish navigator in the Russian service. In 1725 he had commanded a scientific expedition to the Sea of Kamschatka. He ascertained that Asia and America were separated by a strait, which now bears his name. This problem Peter the Great had anxiously sought to solve. On a second voyage to the same region in 1741 he discovered a part of the North American continent. Attempting to return to Kamschatka, his vessel was wrecked on an island which bears his name, where he died.

Russian fur-traders founded a settlement at Sitka, or New Archangel, the first in the District. The country was granted to the Russian Fur Company in 1799 by the Emperor Paul VIII., and was a sort of independent province under their rule. The Company was invested by the Czar with the exclusive right of hunting and fishing in the American waters. The charter of this Company expired in 1867, when the Russian Government declined to renew it.

In 1865-67 Alaska was explored by a scientific corps, sent to select a route for a Russo-American telegraph line, designed to extend across



LOVELL HARRISON ROUSSEAU, COMMISSIONER OF ALASKA.

Behring's Strait into Asia. That project was abandoned in consequence of the successful laying of the Atlantic Telegraph Cable.

Early in 1867 negotiations for the purchase of that Russian possession were begun. On May 20, the same year, a treaty to that effect was ratified by the United States Senate, and Alaska became a part of the domain of the American Republic, at a cost of \$7,200,000 in gold. In October the same year it was formally taken possession of by United States Commissioner, General Lovell H. Rousseau. The laws of the United States were extended over the territory in July, 1868—such as related to Customs, Navigation and Commerce. A collection district was established, also a military district, attached to the Department of California. Sitka was made the capital. It is the most northern harbor on the Pacific coast.

Alaska has never been organized as a Territory of the United States. In May, 1884, Congress created a District Government for the territory, with a Governor (John H. Kinhead), and a District Court, sitting alternately at Sitka, the capital, and at Wrangel. The laws are those of Oregon.

Gold and silver, copper and iron, semi-bituminous coal, petroleum, and other minerals are found in Alaska. The islands and the Sitkan Peninsula produce wheat and other cereals, and some root crops. By far its greatest products are from the fisheries—the fur-seal and salmon. In these pursuits thousands of persons are employed. The fur seal and the other are very abundant. In 1880 they yielded to the United States Government a revenue of \$300,000. The waters of Alaska swarm with salmon, halibut, cod, and other fishes.

The white inhabitants of the District do not exceed, probably, at this time (1888), 15,000. There are many Creoles, Indians, and Eskimos, numbering, probably 60,000. The Aleutian Islands (six of them) are peopled with a mixed population—hardy, industrious, and honest.

OKLAHOMA.



PORTION of the domain in the heart of the Indian Territory (which see), having been ceded to the United States, Congress erected it into a Territory, named Oklahoma, and on April 22d, 1889, it was opened for settlement. On that day a large multitude of intending settlers, gathered on its borders the previous night, rushed into the Territory to secure a quarter section of land each. It was a scene of wild excitement. An improvised city which had grown upon the site of a government land-office called Guthrie, was made the capital of this Territory, with proper offices.

Oklahoma is, at present, irregular in shape, which other expected cessions of Territory may correct. It is about the size of the States of Rhode Island and Delaware combined—something like 3,000,000 acres of land. It is composed of undulating plains and elevated prairies, and is watered by abundant streams. The climate is mild and salubrious. It is said to be well wooded. Three important streams traverse the Territory. The vegetation is much like that of Northern Texas. The only railway entering the Territory at present is the Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé.

OFFICIAL CENSUS OF 1890.

THE FOLLOWING TABLE GIVES THE POPULATION OF EACH CITY OF THE UNITED STATES THAT IS SKETCHED IN THE PRESENT WORK, AND ALSO INCLUDES ALL CITIES HAVING 50,000 INHABITANTS AND OVER.

Numerical Rank.	CITIES.	1890.	1880.
29	Albany, N. Y.,	94,640	90,758
42	Atlanta, Ga.,	65,514	37,409
28	Allegheny, Pa.,	104,967	78,682
7	Baltimore, Md.,	435,151	332,313
6	Boston, Mass.,	446,507	362,839
4	Brooklyn, N. Y.,	804,377	566,663
11	Buffalo, N. Y.,	254,457	155,134
41	Cambridge, Mass.,	69,837	52,669
50	Camden, N. J.,	58,274	41,659
53	Charleston, S. C.,	54,592	49,984
3	Chicago, Ill.,	1,098,576	503,185
9	Cincinnati, O.,	296,309	255,750
10	Cleveland, O.,	261,546	160,146
30	Columbus, O.,	90,398	51,647
68	Davenport, Ia.,	28,500	21,831
48	Dayton, O.,	58,868	38,678
27	Denver, Colo.,	106,670	35,629
58	Des Moines, Ia.,	50,067	22,408
15	Detroit, Mich.,	205,669	116,340
56	Evansville, Ind.,	50,674	29,280
40	Fall River, Mass.,	74,351	49,006
67	Galveston, Tex.,	29,118	22,248
44	Grand Rapids, Mich.,	64,147	32,016
	Hampton, Va.,	* 2,800	2,684
62	Harrisburg, Pa.,	40,164	30,726
54	Hartford, Conn.,	53,182	42,551
26	Indianapolis, Ind.,	107,445	75,056
71	Jacksonville, Fla.,	17,160	10,927
19	Jersey City, N. J.,	163,987	120,722
23	Kansas City, Mo.,	132,416	55,785
73	Keokuk, Ia.,	14,075	12,117
52	Lincoln, Neb.,	55,491	13,008
57	Los Angeles, Cal.,	50,394	11,183
58	Lowell, Mass.,	77,605	59,475
20	Louisville, Ky.,	161,005	123,758
51	Lynn, Mass.,	55,684	38,274
60	Manchester, N. H.,	43,983	32,630
43	Memphis, Tenn.,	64,586	33,592
16	Milwaukee, Wis.,	204,150	115,582

* Estimated.

OFFICIAL CENSUS OF 1890, *Continued.*

Numerical Rank.	CITIES.	1890.	1880.
18	Minneapolis, Minn.,	164,738	46,887
66	Mobile, Ala.,	31,822	29,132
39	Nashville, Tenn.,	76,309	43,461
17	Newark, N.J.,	181,518	136,508
32	New Haven, Conn.,	85,981	62,882
12	New Orleans, La.,	241,995	216,090
1	New York, N.Y.,	1,513,501	1,206,299
21	Omaha, Neb.,	139,526	30,518
37	Paterson, N.J.,	78,358	51,061
69	Petersburg, Va.,	23,317	21,656
2	Philadelphia, Pa.,	1,044,894	847,176
13	Pittsburg, Pa.,	238,473	156,389
64	Portland, Me.,	36,609	33,810
	Portland, Or.,	† 72,079	17,577
	Princeton, N. J.,	* 3,940	3,209
25	Providence, R.I.,	132,043	104,856
47	Reading, Pa.,	58,926	43,278
36	Richmond, Va.,	80,838	63,600
22	Rochester, N.Y.,	138,327	89,336
57	Salt Lake City, Utah,	45,025	20,768
63	San Antonio, Tex.,	38,681	20,561
8	San Francisco, Cal.,	297,990	233,959
	Savannah, Ga.,	41,762	30,709
34	Scranton, Pa.,	83,450	45,850
58	Springfield, Mass.,	44,164	33,340
72	St. Augustine, Fla.,	* 15,000	12,117
55	St. Joseph, Mo.,	52,811	32,431
5	St. Louis, Mo.,	460,357	350,518
24	St. Paul, Minn.,	133,156	41,473
31	Syracuse, N.Y.,	87,877	51,791
35	Toledo, O.,	82,652	50,137
49	Trenton, N.J.,	58,488	29,910
46	Troy, N.Y.,	60,605	56,747
59	Utica, N. Y.,	44,001	33,914
14	Washington, D.C.,	229,796	147,293
65	Wheeling, W. Va.,	35,052	30,737
45	Wilmington, Del.,	61,437	42,478
70	Wilmington, N. C.,	20,008	17,350
33	Worcester, Mass.,	84,536	58,291

NOTE :—The population of the several cities as given in the body of the work for the years 1881 to 1889 inclusive, was in many instances based upon an estimate furnished by their respective Mayors, and not upon an actual enumeration. This fact, therefore, should be borne in mind in making a comparison of these figures with those of the “Official Census of 1890.”

† As given by the Mayor, including suburbs.

* Estimated.

OFFICIAL CENSUS OF 1890.

POPULATION OF THE STATES AND TERRITORIES.

[From the Official Census of 1890.]

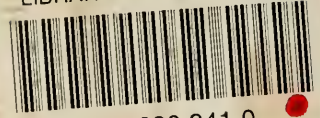
Numerical Rank.	STATES AND TERRITORIES.	1890.	1880.	Increase per Cent.
17	Alabama	1,508,073	1,262,505	19.45
48	Arizona	59,691	40,440	47.60
24	Arkansas	1,125,385	802,525	40.23
22	California	1,204,002	864,694	39.24
31	Colorado	410,975	104,327	111.49
29	Connecticut	745,861	622,700	19.78
42	Delaware	167,871	146,608	14.50
39	Dist. of Columbia	229,796	177,624	29.37
32	Florida	390,435	269,493	44.88
12	Georgia	1,834,366	1,542,180	18.95
45	Idaho	84,229	32,610	158.29
3	Illinois	3,818,536	3,077,873	24.06
8	Indiana	2,189,030	1,978,301	10.65
10	Iowa	1,906,729	1,624,615	17.36
19	Kansas	1,423,485	996,096	42.91
11	Kentucky	1,855,436	1,648,690	12.54
25	Louisiana	1,116,828	939,946	18.82
30	Maine	669,261	648,936	1.75
27	Maryland	1,040,431	934,943	11.28
6	Massachusetts	2,233,407	1,783,085	25.26
9	Michigan	2,089,792	1,636,937	27.66
20	Minnesota	1,300,017	780,773	66.50
21	Mississippi	1,284,887	1,131,597	13.55
5	Missouri	2,677,080	2,168,380	23.46
44	Montana	131,769	39,159	236.50
26	Nebraska	1056,793	452,402	133.60
49	Nevada	44,327	62,266	d 28.81
33	New Hampshire	375,827	346,991	8.31
18	New Jersey	1,441,017	1,131,116	27.40
43	New Mexico	144,862	119,565	21.16
1	New York	5,981,934	5,082,871	17.69
16	North Carolina	1,617,340	1,399,750	15.54
41	North Dakota	182,425	*	
4	Ohio	3,666,719	3,198,062	14.65
46	Oklahoma	61,701	†	
38	Oregon	312,490	174,763	78.80
2	Pennsylvania	5,248,574	4,282,891	22.55
35	Rhode Island	345,343	276,531	24.88
23	South Carolina	1,147,161	995,577	15.23
37	South Dakota	327,848	*	
13	Tennessee	1,763,723	1,542,359	14.35
7	Texas	2,232,220	1,591,749	40.24
40	Utah	206,498	143,963	43.44
36	Vermont	332,205	332,286	d .02
15	Virginia	1,648,911	1,512,565	9.01
34	Washington	349,516	75,116	365.30
28	West Virginia	760,448	618,457	22.96
14	Wisconsin	1,683,691	1,315,497	27.99
47	Wyoming	60,589	20,789	191.45
Total - - -		62,480,540	50,155,783	24.57

Alaska and Indian Territory are not included in this enumeration.

* Two States formed from the territory of Dakota - Population in 1880, --135,177.

† New territory found in 1890.

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